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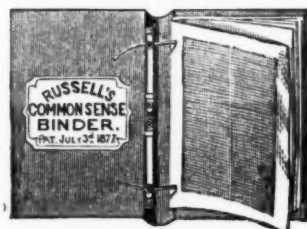
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 30, 1884.

The Week.

MR. THEODORE ROOSEVELT made a speech on Wednesday week in which he tried to explain his position. He laid it down that it "may be right to bolt," but "you must be certain that the time is right." This is true not only of bolting, but of all forms of human action, and his speech would have been more forcible if he had given his reasons for thinking that now is not a good time to bolt. The Independents do not deny the great general truth laid down by Mr. Roosevelt. What they say is, that the present is an excellent time, and give their reasons, too. What we should like from Mr. Roosevelt is a reply to these. His speech is less an explanation than an apology. In the course of it he made the surprising assertion that Governor Cleveland had not yet acted on the charges against the Sheriff: "Nor has he yet acted upon the serious charges brought against the leader of the Committee of Irving Hall." Mr. Roosevelt must have known, for it had been published in every newspaper in New York, that Governor Cleveland had served notice on the Sheriff to answer the charges, which is all he could do, unless he were to remove him without a hearing, which no one has yet suggested. Mr. Roosevelt's statement was worse than misleading, and we are surprised that he should have permitted himself to make it.

It seems impossible for Mr. Evarts to appear in public in this canvass without making either blunders or misstatements. His attack on Cleveland in his first speech for not removing Hubert O. Thompson, when the law gives the power of removing him to the Mayor only, is still fresh in the memory of many of our readers as an illustration of his carelessness and inaccuracy. In his recent speech in Brooklyn he was guilty of something which, even in a criminal lawyer pleading before a jury, would not be creditable. He attempted a defence of the Mulligan letters in greater detail than any of Blaine's other defenders; and in what did it consist? In a citation of three wholly immaterial errors committed in the *Nation's* first article on Blaine before the nomination, and which we have since ourselves corrected, and allowed William Walter Phelps to correct in our columns immediately. The charges against Blaine, which have been repeated on a hundred stumps, and in thousands of articles, and in millions of pamphlets during the last three months, are, that he tried to get a "bed-rock interest" in a railroad franchise from the holder of it by reminding him of a ruling he had made in its favor in the Speaker's chair; that he obtained the selling agency of the bonds of this road on commission, and obtained a large commission, and lied about the whole transaction in Congress; that the land grant of the road derived some of its value from Congressional legislation, obtained after he became selling agent—and he lied in Congress about this too;

that he had to take back large numbers of the bonds from persons to whom he had sold them in Maine, and got rid of them by selling them to other railroad companies far above their market value; that he became possessor of an interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad in a way he has never explained, and made merchandise of it, after it had been greatly increased in value by Congressional legislation, while he was either Speaker or member of the House; that he has been convicted of all these things, except the sale of the bonds to the railroad companies, and of numerous falsehoods of the grossest character, showing complete unscrupulousness and audacity, by letters in his own handwriting, the authenticity of which has never been questioned, or by the *Congressional Record*.

Not one of these charges rests in the smallest degree, directly or indirectly, on the errors which the *Nation* has acknowledged. In publicly treating the case against Blaine as consisting of these errors solely, therefore, Mr. Evarts has been guilty of a piece of misrepresentation, which, whether intentional or not, he owes it to himself—we don't believe the public will care much about the matter—to correct promptly. We must remind him and several other prominent Republicans of good standing, that Blaine may be defeated—we have no doubt he will be—and that they have characters to maintain after he shall have disappeared from the scene. We advise Mr. Evarts to do this, moreover, as a measure of what we may call political economy. He is throwing away nearly all his value as a party orator by recklessness in assertion. A meaner man might do this with impunity, but if you deprive a great lawyer of his accuracy, there is little left of him as an influence on public opinion, even if he have the tongue of angels.

Mr. Evarts's allusions to Cleveland do not merit examination. They are excellent specimens of the kind of innuendo for which the epithet "dastardly" has been most fitly reserved. He does not venture to attack Cleveland's personal character openly, but he jokes and winks over it, and, while "avoiding a single aspersion, and discrediting every exaggeration"—the careful, cautious man that he is—suggests there is something about it which "the matrons" would do well to look into. Most good matrons, however, are much better employed than trying to find out the meaning of Mr. Evarts's jokes. They have the stockings to darn, and the washing to count, and the children's clothes to mend.

Senator Hoar has written a letter to the Boston *Daily Advertiser* which is curious but characteristic. It is an answer to the charge of having denounced Blaine for dishonesty before the nomination, and then having preached his honesty after the nomination. This charge, if true, would have convicted him of nothing worse—though we admit that this is pretty bad—than insincerity or hypocrisy practised for party purposes. People might still have said: "Senator Hoar really sees the mischief and

corruption of Blaine's acts, and would not be guilty of them for worlds himself, but is ready to deny this for the purpose of maintaining his standing in the party." In the letter to the *Advertiser*, however, he boldly announces that he only opposed Blaine's nomination at Chicago because he knew that other people thought him dishonest, and feared that his nomination would probably split the party, but that he himself believed—with the Mulligan letters before him—that "Mr. Blaine was an honest and able man." In other words, he admits now that his standard of political morality is not, and never has been, higher than Blaine's. This confession comes, too, from a gentleman who has rather made a profession of political puritanism. We hope to give him a lesson in political ethics in this State on Tuesday next which will do him good.

The Rev. Dr. Bartol, of Boston, is one of the clergymen who, to the astonishment of their numerous friends and admirers, have been led into supporting Blaine and refusing to see anything very wrong with his character. He appears to be suffering on account of his course, and writes a pathetic letter to the Boston *Herald*, in which he says:

"I am publicly denounced as unfit to teach because I do not call Mr. Blaine a liar and a thief, and privately reproached for admitting that when sorely pressed he may have been tempted to prevaricate. I trust I am no extremist. A prisoner at the bar pleads not guilty. The crime charged is in part a creation, and may be a fiction, of the law, and the penalty excessive or unjust. So it is right he should demand proof, not criminate himself or show his own hand. When a man's foes are hot after his blood, whether he stand or run, fight or retreat, he has military warrant according to the circumstances of the case. In Mr. Blaine's speech and conduct I see not falsehood or fraud, but sometimes perhaps a weak or wavering quality, not unlikely to come out of or be incident to the marked sensibility to which he owes, as did Henry Clay, his power to lead and win. Craft is attributed to him—an excellent trait in a ruler, after the German sense, to make him a needed match for Bismarck. Mr. Blaine certainly does not prevaricate or equivocate in any way different from or worse than that in which do all sharply accused persons, or lawyers in their exculpation or defence. I know how tricky a member of the bar in good standing may be."

It is very extraordinary that Dr. Bartol should not perceive that an innocent man who has nothing to conceal cannot be driven into a corner and does not have to prevaricate. In fact, prevarication is the last thing an innocent man thinks of. He tells his tale, and shows his books and letters, and there, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, is the end of it. Stranger still is it that Dr. Bartol does not perceive that nobody is hunting Mr. Blaine down as a man, and therefore he is not in the position of a poor prisoner at the bar. He is a candidate for one of the highest honors on earth, and all his opponents say is, that, whatever else he may be, for this he is not fit. In fact, Dr. Bartol acknowledges his unfitness in admitting his prevarication. Even if a man may prevaricate, a man who prevaricates in order to get the Presidency, which is what Blaine has done, surely ought not to have it. The same observation applies to Dr. Bartol's comparing him to

a tricky member of the bar. Surely members of the bar ought not to be tricky. Surely it ought not to be mentioned by a clergyman in proof of a man's qualifications for the Chief Magistracy of this great nation, that he is no trickier than a tricky criminal lawyer, and has lied no worse in order to get the place than hired advocates of low standing sometimes lie in order to save their clients from the State prison.

President Anderson, of Rochester University, wrote to Governor Cleveland in March, 1883, warmly thanking him for the course he had taken with regard to the Five-Cent Bill, as a "rebuke to demagogism" and as "an exhibition of the principles which should govern the action of men" in high places. In this letter he informed the Governor that he had expounded the matter to his students, and that, "as a teacher of young men, he felt grateful to any public functionary who illustrated in his person the lessons he was so anxious to impress on their minds." He has since announced, however, that he is going to vote just the same for James G. Blaine for the Presidency, and is probably now using him to his class as an illustration of his lessons. What a picture this presents to us of the times—the president of a university showing his students that there was nothing wrong in the Mulligan letters; that the *Evening Post's* "Tabulated Falsehoods" were a series of "malignant slanders"; that it was quite right for the Speaker to try to get on the "bed-rock" of schemes created by Congressional legislation; and that in the Hocking Valley affair Blaine was no liar at all—only a decoy investor.

There is probably no more edifying sight to be seen in the streets of New York to-day than Mr. George Bliss walking about as a Pharisee with "a holier-than-thou" air. We do not mention it by way of either ridicule or reproach. We simply say that it is instructive. He has not hesitated to declare himself holier than O'Brien, Spencer, and divers other Republican worthies, and to walk out of a Republican caucus because the nominations did not suit him. Yet, according to his ethics hitherto, anybody who goes into a caucus is bound to abide by its decisions—that is, according to the latest commentators, not only vote its ticket, but advise others to vote it, and pretend, no matter how bad he knows it to be, to think it very good. All this shows that Colonel Bliss, after many wanderings and much tribulation, has at last had his eyes opened to the fact that civilized society is organized on the "holier-than-thou" principle, and that to attempt to carry on a political party or any other organization by repudiating it was and is absurd. All the prohibitions to be found in the laws, all the exhortations and condemnations to be heard from the pulpit and the press, are based on the assumption that the constant assertion of the "holier-than-thou principle" is absolutely necessary to prevent the State from being taken possession of by murderers, thieves, brothel-keepers, cheats, and liars.

The circular which John C. New, Chairman of the State Committee in Indiana, has addressed to the Federal office-holders from that

State, shows that the statute is defective in not prohibiting the use of threats or intimidation by any person, whether in or out of the Federal service, to compel Federal employees to contribute to campaign funds. He has issued a peremptory demand on them for money for the present campaign, accompanied with the announcement that "a list of the names and amounts given by each person will be carefully made, and the same reported to the National Committee, and a list will also be made of all persons who do not contribute." This is just as likely to intimidate as any threat from an officer in the service, and yet it seems as if New and his kind can escape all punishment, except such as reaches them through the defeat of their party at the polls.

The intention of the Blaine managers to capture New Jersey by the same disgraceful methods which they employed in Ohio, and are now employing in Indiana, is very perceptible. They will flood the State with money, and try to buy the electoral vote which they know they cannot get in a fair election. Letters come to us from all portions of the State asking us to warn the honest citizens there of this outrageous scheme of debauchery. In addition to the direct purchase of votes, the indirect system of purchase by the appointment of scores of deputy marshals in all the larger cities will be resorted to. Under the law the marshal of the district in which any city or town of 20,000 or more inhabitants is situated, can, on the application of at least two citizens, appoint special deputies to assist him in supervising the election. As there is no limit placed to the number of special deputies, an unscrupulous marshal can appoint as many as he pleases. In Cincinnati the number appointed is said to have been 2,500. By selecting these men from the purchasable element of the voters, their pay becomes a bribe for votes. There is absolutely no excuse for appointing them. In no other election in a Northern State have such means been resorted to heretofore, and they would not be now were not the Blaine managers desperate as well as unscrupulous. The appointment is a gross abuse of official power, and is one more illustration of the way in which the entire public service would be used were Blaine and his gang of corruptionists to get into office.

With the single exception of the State of Maine (in which peculiar and abnormal influences were at work four years ago), every State that has voted since Mr. Blaine's nomination has shown a relative shrinkage of the Republican vote. Four years ago Vermont, at her September election, gave a Republican majority of 26,603. This year it is 21,600—a loss of 5,000. Four years ago Ohio, at her October election, gave a Republican plurality of 19,005 and a Republican majority of 9,404 over the combined Democratic, Greenback, and Prohibition vote. This year the Republican plurality is reduced to 11,324, while the majority has disappeared altogether, and in place of it we find a minority of 2,113. Complete returns from West Virginia have not been received for the present year, but it is quite certain that the Democratic majority over all is

larger than it was four years ago. If the same percentage of loss on the Republican vote runs throughout the United States, Governor Cleveland will carry New York, New Jersey, Indiana, Connecticut, California, Nevada, New Hampshire, and Oregon.

Mr. Deming, of the Independent Committee, has given the *Herald* some figures concerning the Independent strength in this State which show that the dudes and pharisees have good grounds for their confidence in Mr. Blaine's defeat. He says it is a conservative estimate to put the number of Anti-Blaine Republicans in the State, outside of this city and Brooklyn, at 60,000. What the number is in these two cities he does not estimate, and for very excellent reasons. Nobody knows what it is, but everybody, including the Blaine managers, knows that it is very large. For ourselves we do not believe that Mr. Blaine's agents and brokers expect to carry this State. They are subsoiling a little for the Irish vote and the labor vote, but are expending most of their money and strength upon New Jersey and Indiana. While they are at work there, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and several Western States are in great danger of slipping away from them.

We have received a copy of an eight-page address "to all patriotic citizens of the Southern States," issued at Bel Air, Albemarle County, Virginia, October 4, 1884, in behalf of the election of Mr. Blaine to the Presidency. It closes with ten or a dozen reasons why Virginians should vote for Blaine, from which we select the following:

"James G. Blaine favors, as soon as the revenue from this source is not needed for the support of the national Government, the distribution of the proceeds of the Federal liquor tax among the States, thereby enabling them, if they so desire, to dispense with all State taxation."

"James G. Blaine favors an appropriation by the national Government to be applied to the payment of the debt of the 'Old Dominion,' as she was despoiled of a large portion of her territory through the necessities of war."

This is the first recognition we have seen by the South of the "bid" for Southern votes which Mr. Blaine put into his 'History,' and which we have in vain tried to induce his admirers and supporters to discuss. The "bid," like the surplus-distribution scheme, was a genuine product of Blaine statesmanship. Both were in no way connected with Mulligan, or Fisher, or Caldwell, or the Hocking Valley, and were in no sense "exploded slanders." Both were evolved and published during the present year, and were two of the most astounding feats of this "great leader." Yet we cannot induce a Blaine admirer anywhere to say a word about either of them.

The disgraceful business of circulating in secret innumerable slanders against Governor Cleveland is pursued with unabated vigor by the Blaine managers, and seems to have its headquarters in the National Republican Committee rooms. We have a letter from a member of a manufacturing firm in Connecticut, enclosing several circulars sent out by the National Committee and "Tom" Platt, asking for names of employees and for various other kinds of information. In some mysterious way the em

ployees whose names are sent soon afterward begin to receive a series of documents of all kinds. "These documents," writes our informant, "come in floods and are in all tints. The latest is the Cleveland scandal as it originally came out in the Buffalo papers." It has been evident from the beginning of this filth business that it had a systematic organization behind, otherwise the flood could not be kept up in such profusion and regularity.

Another "tariff card," very similar to the forgery of 1880 which S. W. Dorsey so stoutly repudiated, but which is now being circulated afresh in Blaine's interest in the workshops of New York, has been published to deceive the workmen. It is in the German language, and it purports to give the rates of wages in some twenty-five industries in this country and in England, together with a statement of what "one dollar" will buy in both countries. It is stated, among other things, that one dollar will buy twelve pounds of sugar both here and in England. Now the facts are these: The price of granulated sugar in England is 33½ cents per pound. The price of the same sugar in New York is 7 cents a pound. One dollar will buy in England as near as possible 26 2-3 pounds, while the same money will buy in New York 14 2-7 pounds. The selling price of raw sugar in England is exactly the same as the duty on sugar in this country, and the selling price of refined sugar in England is only half a cent per pound more than the duty imposed upon the article by our tariff. Therefore it is impossible that one dollar should buy more than one-half as much raw sugar here as in England, or that it should buy much more than one-half as much of the refined article.

It is not often that an agricultural address at a county fair is anything more than a matter of local interest. An exception to the rule is that recently delivered by Mr. Rowland Hazard, President of the Washington County Agricultural Society, in Rhode Island. Mr. Hazard, as a manufacturer of large experience and observation, succeeds in showing, with greater clearness than has perhaps ever before been done, the influence of the tariff legislation during the last twenty years upon the woollen industry of the country. The tables accompanying the printed report of the address show unmistakably three things: first, that the price of wool has not been appreciably affected by the tariff laws; secondly, that the number of sheep in the country has grown less; and, thirdly, that the amount of wool manufactured has also been diminished. Taking the United States agricultural reports as authority, Mr. Hazard finds that the number of sheep in the Western States, exclusive of Texas and California, since the high tariff of 1867 was adopted, has gone down from 29,879,222 to 14,761,150. The decrease in manufactures has been scarcely less marked. The figures of the national census show that the number of woollen cards decreased in every part of the country between 1870 and 1880, notwithstanding the great increase of our population and the greatly augmented demand for the kind of cloths our wools are fitted to produce. During the ten years the decline was as follows:

in New England, from 3,358 to 2,922; in the Middle States, from 2,273 to 1,570; in the Southern States, from 1,226 to 705; and in the Western States from 1,442 to 681; while in the Pacific States there has been an increase simply from 67 to 83. In the country, as a whole, the sets of cards in use have diminished under the influence of the high tariff from 8,366 to 5,961. Another table, giving the average prices of wool each year since 1847, and the several tariffs that have prevailed during that period, shows that no perceptible influence on prices has been exerted by the rate of duty. While wool, as before the war, was admitted free, the price averaged as high as it has done with the duty at from 40 to 60 per cent. Mr. Hazard's explanation is that the high tariff on varieties absolutely indispensable in certain processes of manufacture, discourages the making of cloth, diminishes the demand for domestic wools, lowers the price of wool, and drives the sheep out of existence. The figures force Mr. Hazard to conclude that the high duty on wool protects nobody.

The great controversy between Butler and Parsons on the question of whether or not Butler is running in the interest of Blaine, and at the Blaine campaign fund's expense, is proceeding with much animation. Butler is making denials which do not cover the case at all, and Parsons is producing evidence which shows his main charge, that Butler is paid to run by the Blaine managers, to be true. Few people have doubted this from the beginning. If Butler is not running as a side-show for Blaine, why is he running at all? He has no hope of election, and nobody who knows him will believe for a moment that he is paying the expenses of his palace-car trip out of his own pocket. If he were getting some fun out of it, he might be willing to pay the expense, but his recent observations show that he is not enjoying himself a bit. He is very cross and bitter in his talk, and appears to realize that he and Grady and the *Sun* combined do not constitute a great laboring man's party.

Fresh and astonishing evidence of Mr. Blaine's "uncommon anxiety" to secure the Presidency is furnished in Thursday's papers. It is shown by facsimiles of the manuscript that a series of editorial articles against Logan, Conkling, Cameron, and Grant, which were published in the *Tribune* in May, 1880, just previous to the assembling of the National Republican Convention, were written by Gail Hamilton and forwarded for publication by Mr. Blaine himself. The articles are full of bitter references to Logan and Cameron, but are rather careful of Mr. Conkling. In one of them, called the "Real Issue," occurs this passage:

"The distrust engendered by the doublings and turnings of Cameron has developed into disgust under the bludgeon of Logan. Logan's candid brutality has cleared the air. The unscrupulous fraud, the unparalleled violence, which have been employed to bring Grant in, have roused the people to a resolve that he shall stay out."

It is intimated that there are many other articles of similar purport in the series, all of them being more or less severe upon Blaine's associ-

ate candidate Logan. The significant points about this revelation are that it presents Blaine once more in his true character as an intriguer and trickster. The author of these articles is the same member of his family who, at a critical stage in the civil-service-reform movement, poured out, through many weary columns of the *Tribune*, ridicule and contempt upon the reform and all its advocates. Behind the petticoats of a woman this Plumed Knight stood in ambush, levelling his lance, which his admirers speak of so proudly, not only at civil-service reform, but at the Republican leaders who stood in the way of his political ambition.

The 'Cape Cod Folks' libel suit has been argued before the full bench of the Massachusetts Supreme Court on appeal, and the decision of the Judges will be looked for with interest. The plaintiff, Lorenzo L. Nightingale, brought the suit against the firm of Cupples, Upham & Co. to recover damages for publishing 'Cape Cod Folks,' a story in which he was introduced in the first edition by name. He is the hero of the story, and figures in it as "champion fiddler, inventor, whale-fisher, cranberry picker, and potato-bugger." Their counsel argue that this is not libellous, but laudatory, and that the law furnishes no redress in such cases. If it turns out that this is so, we trust that the Massachusetts Legislature will amend the law; for the temptation to make a profit out of your friends and acquaintances by putting them in a novel, especially with their real names, will otherwise speedily produce literary fruits of a very serious character.

The English Franchise Bill is once more on its passage through the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone introducing it in a speech which contained a threat of reform in the House of Lords. This, as being very delicate work, he is reported to have read from a manuscript, contrary to his usual custom. There are still various contradictory reports as to what will be done by way of compromise with the Lords. Lord Salisbury insists still that they must have the Redistribution Bill before them before they will pass the Franchise Bill. The Ministry, on the other hand, say they shall not have it before them, though they may see it. That is, after the Franchise Bill has been passed in the Commons, the Redistribution Bill will be promptly introduced, and the Lords will thus have an opportunity of reading it as individuals, but will have no chance of debating it until they have acted on the Franchise Bill. It may be that this will be sufficient to break down the Salisbury resistance, but apparently not if he can help it. His aim is to force a dissolution of Parliament and an appeal to the country on the bill, but this, if we may judge from recent speeches of Lord Hartington and Mr. Chamberlain, the Liberals are determined he shall not have. They will probably sooner reduce him by threatening to create new peers, and following it up with an attempt to reform the upper House. The *Times* is apparently so satisfied of the gravity of the situation as regards the Lords, that it advises them to begin their reformation themselves.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 22, to TUESDAY, October 28, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR, on Tuesday, appointed ex-Secretary Hugh McCulloch to be Secretary of the Treasury, and Secretary W. Q. Gresham to be Circuit Judge of the Seventh Circuit, to succeed Judge Thomas Drummond, resigned. Mr. McCulloch was Secretary of the Treasury from 1865 to 1869.

Secretary Gresham has modified the Treasury order in regard to the importation of rags "so as to limit it to infected ports only, and all Mediterranean ports are deemed infected ports within the meaning of this order; provided, however, that no old rags shall be landed at any port of the United States, except on a certificate of the United States consular officer at the point of departure that such rags were not gathered or baled at or shipped from any infected place or any region contiguous thereto."

The report of the Director of the Mint shows a falling off in the gold coinage of the United States for the year of about \$1,000,000, and an increase in the silver coinage of about \$35,000,000.

Commodore Schley's report on the finding of the Greely party is published. In it he says: "In preparing the bodies of the dead for transportation in alcohol to St. Johns, it was found that six of them—Lieutenant Kisslingbury, Sergeants Jewell and Ralston, Privates Whistler, Henry, and Ellis—had been cut and the fleshy parts removed to a greater or less extent. All other bodies were found intact."

General Hazen, Chief Signal Officer of the Army, in his annual report, severely condemns Lieutenant Garlington of the *Yantic* for not having left stores at Cape Sabine. He places on him the responsibility for the sufferings of the Greely party.

The Examiners in Chief of the Patent Office have made an important decision in Prof. Graham Bell's favor, in the celebrated telephonic interference patent case. The final settlement of the question will, however, be ultimately made by the courts.

Hiram Price, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, in his annual report to the Secretary of the Interior, says: "It shows that along the pathway of progress in the last twelve months some dark spots have been removed and some bright spots made brighter. More Indians are living in houses and fewer in teepees than there were one year ago. Taken altogether, an impartial view of the situation warrants the belief that some time in the near future it is fair to presume that, with the aid of such industrial, mechanical, and agricultural schools as are now being carried on, the Indian will be able to care for himself, and be no longer a burden but a help to the Government."

Every Federal officer whose voting place is in Indiana has received a demand for a contribution from the State Republican Committee. The call says: "A list of the names and amounts given by each person will be carefully made, and the same reported to the National Committee, and a list will also be made of all persons in office who do not contribute."

Mr. William M. Evarts made a defence of Blaine in the Brooklyn Academy of Music on Thursday night.

The Rev. Henry Ward Beecher made a great speech before the Independents of Brooklyn on Wednesday evening. The meeting was one of the most imposing in numbers and quality of this campaign. Mr. Beecher, in concluding his speech, read a private letter from Governor Cleveland in reply to one from Mrs. Beecher which enclosed certain scandalous stories in regard to the Governor's life in Albany. In the letter Governor Cleveland said: "Your letter, as you may well suppose, has affected me deeply. What shall I say to one who writes so like my mother? I say so like my mother, but I do not altogether mean that,

for she died in the belief that her son was true and noble, as she knew he was dutiful and kind. I am shocked and dumbfounded by the clippings from the newspaper that you sent me, because it purports to give what a man actually knows, and not a mere report, as the other four or five lies do, which I have read or heard, about my life in Albany. I have never seen in Albany a woman whom I have had any reason to suspect was in any way bad. The contemptible creatures who coin and pass these things appear to think that the affair which I have not denied makes me defenceless against any and all slanderers. As to my outward life in Buffalo, the manifestation of confidence and attachment which was tendered me there by all the citizens, must be proof that I have not lived a disgraceful life in that city. And as to my life in Albany, all statements that tend to show that it has been other than laborious and perfectly correct are utterly and in every shape untrue. I do not wonder that your good husband is perplexed. I honestly think I desire his good opinion more than any aid he is disposed to render me. I do not want him to think any better of me than I deserve, nor to be deceived."

Mr. J. F. Joy, having returned from England, on Tuesday published a letter denying that he ever said that Mr. Blaine, while Speaker, made him an offer, "that he would appoint a committee to suit me or put a man upon that committee such as I wished, if I would buy Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds of him at par or otherwise." Mr. Beecher immediately wrote a letter emphatically reaffirming his statement, and naming a number of witnesses to prove it.

Mr. Carl Schurz addressed a large and enthusiastic Independent meeting in New Haven on Monday night.

Bainbridge Wadleigh, who was a Republican United States Senator from New Hampshire for the years 1873-79, made a speech at Manchester, N. H., recently, in which he declared that he could not support Blaine.

State Senator J. L. Powell, of Spottsylvania County, Va., one of Mahone's staunchest followers, has addressed an open letter to his constituents, repudiating Blaine and coming out in favor of Cleveland.

One of the largest meetings ever held in Cohoes, N. Y., took place Saturday night in favor of Cleveland, at which H. J. Johnston, Superintendent of the Harmony Mills, presided. He discussed the question of free trade and protection at length, showing that there was no such thing as a free-trade question in the approaching election. He represents the largest cotton-manufacturing establishment in this country.

Governor Cleveland left Albany for Newark, N. J., on Monday morning, by the West Shore Railroad. He was enthusiastically received at many towns along the route.

The crowd which greeted Governor Cleveland on his arrival at Newark on Monday afternoon was so great as to be almost unmanageable. Workingmen were among the most enthusiastic of those who welcomed him. He was given a reception at a private house, and in the evening at the opera-house. He made a short speech at the latter place, in which he said: "We surely must condemn a system which takes from the pockets of the people millions of dollars not needed for the support of the Government, and which tends to the inauguration of corrupt schemes and extravagant expenditures. The Democratic party has declared that all taxation shall be limited by the requirements of an economical Government. This is plain and direct, and it distinctly recognizes the value of labor, and its right to governmental care, when it further declares that the necessary reduction in taxation and limitation thereof to the country's needs should be effected without depriving American labor of the ability to compete successfully with foreign labor, and without injuring the interests of our laboring population." On Tuesday afternoon Governor Cleveland re-

viewed the National Guard of this city. He returned to Albany that night.

Governor Cleveland has emphatically denied the story that he sent a convict as his substitute to the war.

The Catholic *Telegraph*, of Albany, the only publication of its character between New York and Buffalo, has deserted Blaine, and come out squarely for Cleveland. Its previous course was pursued because of a misapprehension of the circumstances connecting the Governor's name with the Freedom of Worship Bill and with the Catholic Protective item which he vetoed. An investigation of them by a committee of laymen and clergymen removed the feeling of dissatisfaction with Governor Cleveland.

Governor Cleveland's assailant, Boone, was discharged on Wednesday, the Governor not appearing against him.

Gen. W. H. Parsons prints another letter exposing Butler's sell-out to the Republicans, in which he says: "To-day we renew the specific charges, and in confirmation allege that since the pending campaign has opened, General Butler's political manager, Noah A. Plympton, has received and accepted from the Hon. B. F. Jones, Chairman of the Republican National Committee, checks drawn on the First National Bank of New York (John Sherman's) to the amount of \$22,000, which were cashed."

Butler is rapidly losing supporters in Massachusetts through his collusion with the Republicans.

The official returns of the recent Ohio election give the following vote for Secretary of State: Robinson (Rep.), 391,599; Newman (Dem.), 380,275; Morris (Proh.), 9,857; Herold (Grbk.), 3,580.

The Regular Republicans of this city on Wednesday night nominated Lewis J. Phillips for Mayor, Charles Spear for Comptroller, Charles S. Spencer for District Attorney, George Hilliard for President of the Board of Aldermen, and other city officers. The ticket was agreed upon in a caucus of the party leaders held in the afternoon. The caucus was not attended by any representative of the Eleventh Assembly District, and was completely under the control of the John J. O'Brien Machine. Col. George Bliss made a speech against the Machine nominees, declaring them utterly unfit men for the offices. Cornelius N. Bliss said that he could not support the ticket, and that the party had committed moral suicide. He was greeted with cries of "Get out" and "Good-by," and, heading the delegation from the Eleventh District, he left the convention. The ticket met with great opposition, as it was understood to have been put up to be traded on with Tammany. Mr. Phillips, on Friday, declined the nomination for Mayor, for the good of the Republican party.

The Republican County Convention, on Monday evening, owing to resignations and dissatisfaction with its previous work, almost entirely reconstructed its ticket. Frederick S. Gibbs was nominated for Mayor, and J. F. Plummer for Comptroller. New candidates for Common Pleas Judges and President of the Board of Aldermen were also nominated.

Mayor Edson, of this city, on Tuesday afternoon, appointed General Fitz-John Porter to be Police Commissioner to succeed the late Sidney P. Nichols.

The Supreme Court of Ohio—three judges assenting and two dissenting—on Tuesday declared the Scott liquor-tax law unconstitutional.

At the boarding-school of the New England yearly meeting of Friends in Providence, R. I., on Friday, there was celebrated the presentation of a portrait of the poet Whittier, by Charles F. Coffin, of Lynn, Mass. Mr. Coffin was a pupil at the school fifty years ago, and later was a teacher and then a committeeman, which office he still holds. The gift was the result of a desire to give to the institution a lasting memorial of the Quaker poet. The portrait is by Edgar Parker, of Boston.

The first snow of the season fell in Pennsylvania, Ohio, New York, and Illinois on Thursday.

An attempt was made on Wednesday to wreck a train near Knoxville, Ill., by placing obstructions on the track. General Logan was one of the passengers.

By an explosion of fire-damp, on Monday, in the mine of the Youngstown Coke Co., near Uniontown, Pa., fourteen miners were killed and eight injured.

The private banking-house of H. D. Cooke & Co., of Washington, temporarily suspended on Thursday; liabilities \$140,000.

Professor Lewis R. Packard, of Yale College, the well-known Greek scholar, died in New Haven on Sunday, in the forty-ninth year of his age. His widow is a daughter of Dr. Storrs, of Brooklyn.

Wilbur F. Storey, proprietor of the Chicago *Times*, died on Monday night at his home in Chicago, aged sixty-five. He was born at Salisbury, Vt., and received a meagre education. In 1861 he took possession of the Chicago *Times*, and made it the organ of the Democrats of the West. It became noted for its strong secessionist proclivities, and on one occasion the Government suspended it. Notwithstanding its political unpopularity, the newspaper flourished on account of its enterprise in getting the news. It was bitterly personal and sensational. It has since gained a large circulation, and is valued at \$1,500,000. About five years ago Mr. Storey became a spiritualist and greatly modified its acrimony.

FOREIGN

The British Parliament reassembled on Thursday. Queen Victoria's speech was very brief. In it she said: "I have brought you together to enable you to further consider the great subject of the representation of the people. I continue to maintain relations of amity with all foreign Powers. The information from the Sudan includes painful uncertainties, but the energy, courage, and resource conspicuously displayed by General Gordon in the successful defence of Khartum deserve my warm recognition. The advance of my troops to Dongola has for its object the rescue and security of that gallant officer, and of those who have so faithfully co-operated with him. I am using my best endeavors in Egypt to promote further improvement of affairs in that country. I have given my support to the Egyptian Government in the difficult financial position in which it was left through the failure of the recent Conference. I regret the occurrences in the Transvaal, and am considering with the Cape Government means to secure the observance of the convention. The operations in the Sudan render it necessary to ask of you further pecuniary provision."

In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Gladstone said that on Monday he would ask that priority be given to the Franchise Bill throughout the session. He vaguely referred to the Congo question, the Cape troubles, Egyptian affairs, and Lord Northbrook's mission. He insisted that redistribution must follow the passage of the Franchise Bill, and deprecated the disorders in Birmingham and elsewhere, but said he hoped the Opposition had seen that the country wanted the Franchise Bill passed. He would warn them that, while insisting that their labors should include the redistribution scheme, they should not include another question, the issue of which he was unable to foresee. Speeches made by other Conservatives showed that they objected to Mr. Gladstone's menacing tone. Mr. Labouchere said he hoped the House of Lords would persist in rejecting the Franchise Bill, and thus hasten the abolishment of that body. The Marquis of Salisbury, Conservative, in the House of Lords, announced that the House was willing to pass the complete franchise measure, together with a redistribution act, at the earliest date. Earl Granville urged a calm discussion of the bill. The House then ad-

jourled to November 3. The members of the Irish party are left free to support the Franchise Bill or to refrain from voting, as they think fit.

In the House of Commons, on Friday night, the Franchise Bill passed its first reading without debate.

A monster Radical demonstration in favor of the abolition of the House of Lords was held in Hyde Park, London, on Sunday. Over 100,000 persons were present. A long procession with bands, flags, etc., marched through the principal streets. Many banners were displayed bearing such inscriptions as "Down with the Lords!" and "The Lords are opponents of civil and religious liberty, and must be abolished!" Speeches were delivered from nine platforms. Resolutions were passed declaring that the House of Lords is useless and dangerous, and ought to be abolished.

It is proposed to raise by subscription a fund of £10,000 for the benefit of the family of the late Alexander M. Sullivan, the Irish leader.

The Right Hon. George J. Dodson, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, has been created a peer. He will be succeeded by George Otto Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, with a seat in the Cabinet. H. Campbell Bannerman, Secretary to the Admiralty, has been appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland. The *Dublin Freeman's Journal* asserts that Mr. Trevelyan withdrew from the Chief Secretaryship of Ireland because he was unwilling to continue as the mouthpiece of Earl Spencer's policy, and because he was disgusted with the Castle officials.

Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, will continue at his post until the close of the session of Parliament in 1885, when Lord Rosebery will probably succeed him. Earl Spencer urges the imprisonment of the Limerick authorities if they persist in refusing to pay the police tax.

For the Nile expedition the proposed British credit is \$10,000,000, and it is said that an additional penny will be added to the income tax to meet the expense.

It is reported that at the close of the present session of Parliament the Right Hon. Hugh C. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, will be elevated to the peerage.

The recent official correspondence relating to Egyptian affairs has been made public in London. The letter of instructions from the Government to General Lord Wolseley stated that the object of the expedition was to bring General Gordon and Colonel Stewart back from Khartum. No further offensive operations than should prove necessary to secure this end would be permitted. In a letter dated April 22 General Gordon writes that he has offered freedom and pay to slaves who desert the Mahdi. This policy, he hopes, will sound the doom of slavery in the Sudan. He declares that if Shendi is captured by the rebels it will be due to the Government's failure to send Sebehr Pasha to him.

It is officially announced at Cairo that no doubt exists that Colonel Stewart and his party were massacred by Arabs near Meraweh.

Rumors were current at Cairo, on Tuesday, of the fall of Khartum, but they were not credited by the Government.

Sir Moses Montefiore received hundreds of telegrams on Friday, congratulating him on attaining his hundredth birthday. They came from all parts of the world, and there were many from America. The event was celebrated in many places on Sunday and Monday.

The Rev. Stopford Brooke is about to leave the English Church to join the Unitarian.

A violent storm prevailed throughout the British Isles and neighboring seas on Monday night and Tuesday, doing great damage to shipping. Many small wrecks were reported along the coast.

The Duke of Cumberland issued on Thursday a proclamation assuming the government

of the Duchy of Brunswick, and reserving the right to issue the necessary orders in relation to the oath of allegiance. He says he intends to govern the country in accordance with the imperial and provincial constitutions. Prince Albert, of Prussia, is also a candidate for the throne, and his claim is favored by the court of Berlin. It is said that before the death of the Duke of Brunswick, Prussia indirectly informed the Duke of Cumberland that she would recognize him as the Duke of Brunswick, provided he would renounce all claims to the throne of Hanover. The Duke of Cumberland replied: "My father's son shall be King of Hanover and Duke of Brunswick or remain the Duke of Cumberland." The Regency Council of the Duchy of Brunswick has refused to countersign the manifesto of the Duke of Cumberland, assuming the government of the duchy. The Emperor William has also rejected his claims.

The question of the Brunswick succession was discussed on Thursday by the German Bundesrath. A majority of the body resolved not to admit the claims of the Duke of Cumberland to the throne.

Prince Bismarck on Tuesday, in private conversation, denied absolutely that he had any designs against the independence of the free cities of Germany. The Empire, he said, was greatly interested in their continued freedom, and especially in that of Hamburg.

It is asserted in Paris that Germany has assumed a protectorate over Zanzibar, at the request of its Sultan.

The political ferment in Belgium is serious. Frequent riots occur. On Thursday the Prime Minister resigned. M. Bernaert, Minister of Agriculture in the retiring Cabinet, was called by the King to form a new Cabinet. He retained all the old Cabinet except the Ministers of Agriculture, the Interior, and Justice, whose portfolios he filled with new men. The Liberals are dissatisfied with the new Cabinet, as all the new members are Catholic sympathizers.

At a French Cabinet Council on Thursday it was agreed to make a reduction of 3,600,000 francs in the appropriations for the Ministries of War, Finance, Instruction, and Public Works. M. Jules Roche proposes to the Budget Committee to tax religious congregations 3 per cent., which will produce 4,000,000 francs annually, and to reduce the state subsidies to railways.

The French Cabinet decided on Wednesday to send 12,000 reinforcements to China. The first contingent will be drawn from Algeria. General Delisle will get 9,000 and Admiral Courbet 3,000.

Admiral Courbet promulgated on Wednesday an edict ordering the blockade of Formosa, including the north and west coasts.

Sarah Bernhardt, the actress, has been ordered by her physicians to take a long rest.

Jacques Auguste Adolphe Regnier, the French philologist, is dead.

M. Faustin Hélie, a well-known French jurist, is dead. He was born at Nantes, May 31, 1799, was educated at the Lyceum of his native town, and studied law at Rennes. He was in 1879 made Vice-President of the Council of State. In 1855 M. Hélie was elected a member of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences. He was promoted officer of the Legion of Honor in 1859 and commander in 1874. He was one of the founders and original editors of the *Journal du Droit Criminel*, and he was the author of numerous important treatises on the criminal law.

Recent developments show that the explosions in the Quebec Parliament house were not the work of Irish dynamiters, but of the enemies of the contracting builder.

Japanese advices state that the Mikado has informed the European missions of the creation of a Japanese peerage. This consists of 11 princes, 24 marquises, 76 counts, 374 viscounts, and 74 barons.

WHAT IS "THE REPUBLICAN PARTY"?

WE believe that it is now well known that the Blaine managers have given up all hope of this State, and are simply engaged in trying to prevent Cleveland's receiving the three votes in addition which, after getting those of New York and of New Jersey, will be all that he needs to be elected. He may get these in Indiana; he may get them in Connecticut; he may get them in Nevada or in California. All these are doubtful States with the chances in Cleveland's favor, so that the probability that he will get the three votes in one or other of them is exceedingly strong, and the Republican chance of carrying all of them in the present state of the party, seeing that it was unable to carry them all in 1876 or 1880, when it was united and enthusiastic, is of course exceedingly small. In this State, the question now of most interest is the size of Cleveland's majority. It is to be hoped that it will not be simply an ordinary majority, such as Tilden or Garfield received—that is, a majority indicating a simple preference—but one, like Cleveland's in 1882, large enough to stamp with deep popular reprobation both Blaine and his methods. New York occupies the proud position in the Union of being the one State which no politician can calculate on as sure for his party, under all circumstances. It is never sure for any party two elections in succession. It holds a body of voters who cannot be either cajoled or bought, who represent better than any other body in the country that ideal public of which we hear so much in speeches and articles, which watches both parties with an equal and unclouded eye, and makes its vote at the polls dependent on performance and not on promises. It is almost the only State in the Union which has ever cast a distinctly punitive vote—that is, which not simply defeated rascally politicians, but defeated them with a blow so sudden and stunning that they never tried to explain it away. They simply tied up their heads in silence and retired to their homes. It will, therefore, be preëminently its rôle on Tuesday next not simply to deny the Presidency to James G. Blaine & Co., but to warn the band of speculators who make up the firm, that they must dismiss, for this generation at least, all hopes of getting hold of the Government.

There are Republicans who, being friends of good government, look forward to this with so great apprehension that they prefer, in the first century of the Republic, and in the eyes of all the world, putting a mendacious jobber in the chair of Washington to seeing the Democrats once more in possession of the Administration. We would ask them, with perfect comprehension of their feeling, to consider for one moment carefully what it is they mean when they talk and think of "the Republican party." In ninety-nine cases out of one hundred what they have in mind when they use this phrase is the Republican half of the American people, which possesses the larger share of the intelligence, public spirit, thrift, industry, foresight, and accumulated property of the country. It is

not surprising that they should think this half safer custodians of the Government than the other half. So it would be if its virtues were at every election brought to bear on the transaction of public business—that is, if the Republican party which votes were the Republican party which administers. But the fact is—and it is the great fact of the present situation—the Republican party which votes and the Republican party which acts have become two different things in virtue of a law which seems to govern all human organizations. Wherever you have organization you have to have leaders or managers, and the tendency of the leaders and managers, if assured of their tenure of power, exempt from criticism which they really dread, and plentifully supplied with money, is to drift away from the main body of their constituents, to lose sympathy with them and comprehension of them. They get, in short, into the state of mind in which absolute hereditary monarchs pass their lives—a state of mind, that is, in which force and money seem the greatest things on earth, opinion and feeling of small consequence, and high aims ludicrous vanities.

That this scission between Republican managers and Republican voters began to show itself soon after the war, and has gone on increasing, no intelligent observer can deny. It is now complete. In fact, we consider the nomination of Blaine a sign of its completeness. Every time Republican voters say to a Dorsey, or a Robeson, or a Blaine, or an Elkins, or a Clayton, that they will stand anything from "the Republican party" sooner than vote the Democratic ticket, they practically give him a blank check on the national exchequer. They take away all the motive for reform by which most politicians, bad or good, are most powerfully influenced. They promise power to these men for which no men are fit, not even Washington, or Lincoln, or Pitt, or Gladstone.

It must be remembered, in fact, that the goodness of the Republican voters does no good as long as it does not reach the Government. The quality of the individual members of a party is of no sort of use politically unless it affects legislation and administration. It is useful, indeed, only in so far as it affects legislation and administration. For practical purposes, in every party government, the party is not the voters but the men whom it puts in power. It is only in the men whom it puts in power that a party manifests itself as a political force. What the voters think about the commonwealth, how much they love it, how much they hate corruption or disorder, is of itself of no more political consequence than what a religious congregation thinks or feels about faith, hope, and charity. Nor is their desire or motive in voting of any political importance. The thing to be considered in estimating the value of a party to the State is the kind of men whom it chooses to execute the laws and take care of the public money. Telling people, when you are reproached with putting thieves in office, that you cannot forget the war, is very like the remark of Colonel Yell of Yellville, that though the accounts of his bank were not quite straight, his heart beat warmly for his na-

tive land. The war was fought in the interest of good government, and the only use of remembering the war lies in the help it affords in keeping the government good. Patriotism, in short, is not a virtue to be cultivated for its own sake, and neither is party fidelity. A patriot who does not care what kind of men he puts in charge of his country is a contradiction in terms, like an excellent husband and father who, while possessing a tender heart and a strong sense of duty, refuses to support either his wife or family, and squanders his substance on profligate companions.

DEMAGOGISM IN THE CAMPAIGN.

WITHIN the past few weeks it has come to our attention in many ways that the Blaine managers are making innumerable secret efforts to convince the workmen that Cleveland is their enemy. Documents misrepresenting his veto of the Five-Cent Fare Bill, of the Horse-Car Conductors' Bill, the Mechanics' Lien Bill, and other measures have been disseminated with great ingenuity among the working classes all over the country; all placing his action in such a light as to give the impression that he is the bitter foe of laboring men and the persistent defender of monopoly. It seems to us that campaigning of this sort is likely to cut in two directions. It may result in deceiving a few workmen who do not stop to think about the matter, and to whose attention the real facts in the case may not be brought; but upon thinking men of all classes the effect cannot fail to be to raise the Governor in their estimation. If he had been a demagogue, he would have signed every one of those bills. To a man without convictions or a strong sense of public duty, it would have been the easiest thing in the world to sign the bills, and pose before the country as the friend of the workman. There would have been thousands of votes in such action. He knew well enough how his refusal to betray his trusts would be misinterpreted against him, but he had the courage to do his duty.

In one of his private letters to his friend President Hinsdale, Garfield wrote: "You know that I have always said that my whole public life was an experiment to determine whether an intelligent people would sustain a man in acting sensibly on each proposition that arose, and in doing nothing for mere show or for demagogical effect. Perhaps it is true that the demagogue will succeed when honorable statesmanship will fail; if so, public life is the hollowest of all shams." That applies peculiarly to the present canvass. If Cleveland is defeated, it will be solely because the "demagogue will succeed when honorable statesmanship will fail." The supporters of Mr. Blaine admit the case when they say that the loss of the Independents will be made good by the Irish vote and the labor vote. Both these elements, if they go to Blaine, will go there because of his demagogism, and will desert Cleveland because of his absence of demagogism. Thoughtful men realize this, and it is one of the main reasons for their faith in Cleveland as the man preëminently fitted for this crisis.

Take for example the veto of the Five-Cent Fare Bill. What a chance there was in that

for a demagogue to make capital. It was a blow aimed at a monopoly whose controlling spirits are the most unpopular capitalists in America. The popular dislike of them is so intense that any measure, just or unjust, which is designed to cripple their power, is certain to be hailed as in the interest of the people. That was the case with the Five-Cent-Fare Bill. Its passage was advocated by journals and leaders who were so carried away by the sentiment against the owners of the roads affected that they forgot to take into account the public faith of the State. But the Governor did not forget his duty or shrink from it. He vetoed the bill because it was a breach of the public faith, and his courage called forth high praise from many quarters, including some from men who are joining now in the efforts of demagogues to defeat him. Andrew D. White, President of Cornell University, thus wrote about it:

"I will say frankly that I am coming to have a very great respect and admiration for our new Governor. His course on the Elevated Railroad Bill first commended him to me. Personally I should have been glad to have seen that company receive a slap. But the method of administering it seemed to me very insidious and even dangerous, and glad was I to see that the Governor rose above all the noise and clap-trap which was raised about the question, went to the fundamental point of the matter, and vetoed the bill. I think his course at that time gained him the respect of every thinking man in the State."

The Governor did indeed "rise above the noise and clap-trap," but we regret to observe that Mr. White has found himself incapable of rising to a similar height in this campaign. Another spontaneous tribute to the Governor's courage came from the President of Rochester University, as follows:

"ROCHESTER, March 4, 1883.

"Governor Cleveland:

"Sir: I cannot, in justice to my convictions, refrain from expressing my gratitude for your veto message, which I have just read. I have no personal interest in any of the great corporations which were directly or indirectly affected by the bill from which you have so wisely withheld your approval. But the just and statesmanlike positions taken in your message seem to me a most fitting rebuke to the demagogism which is ready to trifle with those sacred rights of property guaranteed by our State and National Constitutions. In these safeguards of property the poor man has a more vital interest than the capitalist, for they make secure the poor man's savings, which constitute his only means of support. I have taken occasion to commend your message to the careful consideration of my students as an exhibition of the principles which should govern their actions, should they be called to fill public station in their future lives. I trust you will pardon me for obtruding myself upon your attention. As a teacher of young men, I feel grateful to any public functionary who illustrates in his person the lessons which I am so anxious to impress upon their minds. Again I thank you for the courageous and worthy action which you have adopted to secure sound government for our great State.—Yours very respectfully,

"MARTIN B. ANDERSON."

Among the advocates of the bill when it was driven by "noise and clap-trap" through the Legislature, was Theodore Roosevelt. He has probably not forgotten the manly confession which he made of his error when, in the light of the Governor's veto message, he changed about and voted to sustain the Governor's position.

On all the other measures upon which his action is now brought up against him, the Governor's course was equally brave and sound. Nobody has ever successfully questioned the statesmanship and wisdom of any of his acts. His public record has been assailed openly on-

ly to be vindicated. It is an everlasting humiliation to the Republican party that in this campaign its candidate stands forth as the avowed advocate of demagogism, while the Democratic candidate would have been assured of overwhelming triumph from the moment of his nomination had he not risen in every case of trial "above the noise and clap-trap."

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT AT BERNE.

THE question of international copyright, while it has dropped out of sight for a time in this country, is making rapid progress in Europe. It has been the chief subject of discussion at the Literary and Artistic Congress recently held under royal and distinguished patronage at Brussels, and the two following important resolutions were proposed by the Committee and voted by the Congress:

"(1) The right of reproduction of a work of art belongs to the artist independently of the material property of the work. Consequently, the disposal of a work of art does not imply on the part of the artist, unless in case of express stipulation, the alienation of the right of reproduction. (2) All reproduction unauthorized by the artist, even by a different art, is an infringement of the artist's right."

It was the opinion of the Congress, however, that the artist who sells his work to the State, parts with his right of making or authorizing the reproduction of it, except, of course, in case of contrary stipulation.

The Conference of the Association for the Promotion of an International Copyright in Literary and Artistic Works, which has just concluded its second annual meeting at Berne, was of greater importance, and has given an exhaustive report on the subject. It was founded in 1878, under the title of "The International Literary Association," with the avowed object of "propagating and defending in all countries the principles of intellectual property, and of studying, with a view to their improvement, the various conventions bearing on the subject." The first meeting was held at Rome in 1882, when it was determined to convoke a conference at Berne for the following year, to draw up a programme as a basis for an "International Convention." This conference at Berne, in September, 1883, was attended by numbers of delegates from literary societies, universities, academies, societies of artists, editors, journalists, and diplomats. Great satisfaction was expressed at so influential and intellectual a gathering. The programme for discussion was as follows:

"(1) To study the legislative enactments affecting literary property in all civilized countries. (2) To study important points of these enactments, with a view to a unification and the foundation of a 'Union of Literary Property.' (3) The drawing up of certain articles, clear and concise, setting forth the principles that are most likely to be accepted by the various Powers, and which should constitute the text of a universal convention."

After three days' discussion a "project of convention" was unanimously adopted and submitted to the Federal Council. By this body it was approved and embodied in a circular note to all the governments of civilized countries, inviting them to send a diplomatic representative to a conference which should consider the copyright laws of each country,

and then report upon the feasibility of "international rights." To this an affirmative reply was received from eleven States, as follows: England, Germany, France, Austria, Italy, Guatemala, Luxembourg, Salvador, Sweden, Norway, and the Argentine Republic. A direct negative reply was received from six others—the Republics of San Domingo and Nicaragua, Mexico, Greece, the Low Countries, and Denmark. Two others sent an ambiguous answer, not stating their intentions with regard to the proposed conference. These were Bulgaria and the United States.

"In practice," wrote the latter, "the American Government believes that it would be found that great obstacles would embarrass the working of a single convention to embrace all countries. The difference of tariffs, and the fact that, besides the author and artist, several other industries are interested in the production or reproduction of a work in any country, must not be left out of the calculation when an agitation is set on foot to accord to an author of a work the right to produce, or to prevent reproduction of, a work in any country not his own."

A second circular from the Federal Council converted two more countries, so that thirteen were represented at this year's Conference. It is stated that our own Government entirely ignored the second circular. Costa Rica and Paraguay also joined the convention toward its close. The principal points of discussion during the ten days' sitting were the duration of copyright, the nature of the formalities of registration, and the rights of translation. The Conference sat with closed doors, and the details of the provisory convention, which was unanimously signed, will not be made known until the first of November. It is confidently hoped that next year's Conference will be able to give a definite character to the convention.

Notwithstanding the reticence which has been observed on the subject, it is understood that the following are the principal heads of the convention already arrived at: (1) Authors placing themselves within the jurisdiction of the contracting countries will be afforded protection for their works, whether in print or manuscript, and will have all the advantages of the laws of the different nations embraced in the Union. (2) These privileges will be dependent upon the carrying out of the conditions and formalities prescribed by the legislation of the author's native country, or of the country in which he chooses to first publish his work; such country being of course one of those included in the convention. (3) These stipulations apply alike to editors and authors of literary works, as well as to works of art published or created in any country of the Union. (4) Authors within the jurisdiction of the Union will enjoy in all the countries the exclusive rights of translation of their works during a period of ten years after publication, in any one country of the Union, of an authorized translation. (5) It is proposed that it shall be made legal to publish extracts from works which have appeared in any country of the Union, provided that such publications are adapted for teaching or have a scientific character. The reciprocal publication of books composed of fragments of various authors will also be permitted. It will be an indispensable condition, however, that the source of such extracts shall at all times be acknowledged. (6) On the other hand, it will be unlawful to publish without special permission of the holder of the copyright any

piece of music in any collection of music used in musical academies. (7) The rights of protection accorded to musical works will prohibit arrangements of music containing fragments from other composers, unless the consent of such composer be first obtained.

THE WATTS EXHIBITION.

LONDON, October 11, 1884.

In a few days an American public will, *permitted*, have an opportunity of seeing and judging fairly the most distinguished and, on the whole, the greatest artist whom England has produced in the present generation, and who with Turner enjoys the preëminent good fortune of being appreciated by the educated in art, and accepted by the general public without being appreciated. One of your London correspondents has spoken of the general futility of the art-criticism of the English press, and I shall add nothing to his testimony except to give it what is in this case its due—that it, and especially the *Full Mall Gazette*, has labored to give Mr. G. F. Watts his true position, if not from genuine comprehension of his artistic merits, yet from a sympathetic reading of the work through the man. Turner was indebted for the position he holds still to the appreciation mainly of the artists, and then to the enthusiastic propaganda of Ruskin; but to this day, in the public apprehension, he is judged by the least characteristic and least artistic of his works—those in which what people choose to call his common-sense and his commonplace views of nature are dominant; the most Turnerian of all being commonly spoken of as the things he did when he had gone half mad, as his vagaries, etc.

Watts has been more fortunate in this respect than his great compatriot, and he owes it mainly to the fact that the intellectual themes on which his art has been bestowed have been such as the public mind was capable of sympathy with, and in part, too, to his potent and poetic personality. Like our own Page, but in even a greater degree, he imposes his ideals on those who come in contact with him, by his earnestness and profoundly artistic nature, predisposing even those who have but slight knowledge of art, to see things through his eyes and accept his standards and aims as those of the highest art. Himself devoted to it with supreme devotion, and giving to its problems a mind of extraordinary power of insight and idealism, gifted by nature not alone with the keenest susceptibility to the qualities of art, but to those poetic inspirations which are allied to art as poetry is to music, it is impossible to come within the range of his influence without feeling that to this man, at least, art and all its outcome are the supreme reality, or without coming to sympathize with this unfaltering devotion to his aesthetic creed. To see the world of the artist through his eyes, even for the moment, is to see a metamorphosis in it, and to realize the possibility of finer things than our common sense aspires to. It is this power of the man which, perhaps even more than that of his art, has obtained for him a present recognition which no English contemporary has reached in England. You will find people who profess to be admirers of Turner, but who cannot sufficiently revile his later work; and the only two painters besides worthy of being classed with Watts as successful students of art for art's sake, Rossetti and Burne-Jones, are, while they have their special public, neither so equal in their work nor so generally accepted as entitled to the upper seats in the assembly of artists as Watts. Rossetti's imaginative intensity and his singular individuality, his extraordinary fecundity of design and wealth of color, have given him, in spite of all

his technical shortcomings, a permanent position in English art—apart, and in his province supreme. Burne-Jones, in another vein of design as fertile and far more fluent, extraordinary in invention, and subtle and refined in color as any modern of any school—reminding one in his best work of the Bellini or the early work of Titian—is distinctly a follower of Italian art, and carries one back to the Italian Renaissance irresistibly. His work, seen collectively, is like an eclectic adaptation of Italian treatment with themes ranging from classical to mediæval. Mythology, fable, allegory, Greek, Hebrew, fairy—all that lies within the inexhaustible realm of the ideal—Burne-Jones roves over; the actual he never touches by intention or by chance, and every coin from his mint bears his image and superscription—he need put no *B.-J. fecit*. Both these are, like Watts, highly individualized products of modern art culture, but not of English exclusively, as Millais is, and as are the whole brood of story-tellers and incident and commonplace life painters, from Hogarth to Frith. Yet Watts, Burne-Jones, and Rossetti have two traits only in common—they are artists as opposed to the naturalists and realists of the day, and their art is vivified by the life that expired in Italy in the sixteenth century; Rossetti maintaining most an elemental independence—his very fibre is individual—and Burne-Jones yielding most to the fascination of the elder art, and measuring his steps by the old footprints; while Watts, between the two in this respect, towers above both by a larger view of the intellectual side of art, while, at the same time, he has a firmer grasp of the real as shown in his portraiture. In this he stands alone in England, and, in my opinion, in his epoch, and in a certain way is the first since Velasquez in one vein and the great Venetians in another. Certainly England in this generation has produced no such portraits for profound reading of character as some that will be seen in the exhibition at New York.

I wish that the portrait of Mr. Gladstone could have been among them, but it was regarded as too valuable to be risked afloat. Mr. Gladstone has been painted within a few years both by Millais and Watts, and the two portraits are so thoroughly characteristic of the difference between the two painters that I can illustrate them better by a comparison than in any other way. I knew both heads well before I had more than a casual chance to study the original, but it so happened one summer that I passed several days in the Dolomites with Mr. Gladstone, just after what was supposed to be his definitive retirement from public affairs, prior to the last general elections. We walked together every day, and the conversation was on Italy, Greece, and Montenegro generally, and of a purely philosophic character, except that now and then he spoke of America, but always in the vein of his actual feeling—defective, and with remote interest in the actualities. It was no longer the politician, the tribune who spoke, but the man of letters and humanist, and his face was habitually that of Mr. Watts's portrait—a quiet, meditative, almost dreamy face, which no one would suspect to be that of a great statesman; and it was this phase of his character which Watts's portrait brought up and tells absolutely. Some time later, when Fenian attempts on the lives of members of the Government were apprehended, and they were commonly watched over by policemen, I met Mr. Gladstone going up Regent Street on foot and alone, looking straight before him, with no deflection of his vision or line of motion, as if he saw a Parliamentary conflict ahead and meant to be there in time for the first hot word, going with the rapid, resolute step of a man of forty at most; and I saw at the instant Mr. Millais's portrait of him—all surface, but a more or less agitated surface. Watts's head of

the Prince de Joinville, which also remains here, is another grand head, which, but for the execution, one might mistake for a portrait by Titian. But the head of Burne-Jones, which has gone to New York, is one of Watts's best, and is, both as execution and color, a most characteristic work, and will enable our public to see what he can do in this noble branch of his art. As portrait, it is surpassed by nothing I know of.

What Watts, in common with the other English artists I have mentioned, not to speak of his contemporaries in general, will show a deficiency in, is the power of execution as compared with men of equal natural and not finer poetic powers in the great Italian schools. The modern training is absolutely and universally in default in the development of executive powers, when we measure them by the standard of Titian, Rembrandt, and Velasquez. To paint and draw with rapidity and precision was the basis of the training of the early painters—training which began at eight or ten years of age; and their lives were not burthened with superfluous education in useless sciences and accomplishments. Painting was a craft and not a learned profession, though some knowledge of letters was requisite, as we see from the fact that when Giotto became the pupil of Cimabue he was set at once to study Latin, clearly in order that he might read the Bible, from which his chief subjects were to be drawn. But there was not, as now, the general diversion of the intellectual powers into the various channels comprised in our modern system of even common education. To draw well and readily was the first object of all the training of the apprentice-painter, and all other education was quite incidental; and until these conditions are again observed, it will be useless to look for a school of art equally great in executive powers—i. e., as painters.

Under this rule, Mr. Watts, as well as any and all of his contemporaries and predecessors since Rembrandt, falls in comparison of his executive ability with the older masters. In his portraits, under the immediate inspiration of the nature which he reproduces, the lines of expression are clearer, more rapid, and more precise; they approach more nearly to the ideal of execution—the highest precision given with the greatest rapidity. In the ideal pictures, where nature could not be the subject of simple portraiture, the execution is more *recherché*; it attains, in neither lightness nor precision, to the degree shown in the portraits; the conscious effort of will is in all parts apparent, and in the unimportant and therefore least inspiring portions of his work most so. But even in this respect it is with the great old masters that he must be compared, not with the frivolous realism of to-day, whether English or French. It is easy for a man to be glib in execution when he has only surfaces to imitate and models to follow, as in the art of Alma-Tadema, where the best work is in the least important details; and easy to seem to be masterly in execution when, like Whistler, an artist shirks all the difficult problems, and spends days in struggling to give an appearance of ease to a really labored effort, so that the public may imagine it the work of minutes, which is in fact only a kind of legerdemain. But to carry out a grave and complicated perception like those of Mr. Watts, in which the highest technical problems of color, composition, and light and shade are more or less involved, is quite another matter, and one in which nothing less than the supreme power and training of a Titian, a Correggio, or Velasquez would be absolutely triumphant. In Watts's ideal works the execution is, if always honest and manly, and consequent with the gravity of his theme, still marked by the shade of hesitancy which follows the necessity to think over every touch—the unfailing

consequence of the want of that early training of apprenticeship in which the artist learned to execute almost unconsciously and before thinking.

As for the subjects of Mr. Watts's pictures, the public appreciation will differ widely in America, as it has done in England, the artists generally preferring his portraits to the ideal subjects, and other people such subjects as his "Love and Death" and "Love and Life" to everything else. The pathos and power of the "Love and Death" as design have, to my mind, never been surpassed, and serve to mark the highest attainment of art in this direction. Love stands on the threshold of the menaced home, and passionately but with unequal strength strives to bar the way to Death—a hopeless agony of struggle. It is not allegory but impersonation, and the personation is not of the conventional familiar type, but created by the thought. Death is not the familiar fleshless skeleton, but a mighty, mysterious being, whose power over his opponent is not merely in the strength that pushes, but in the dread that paralyzes. As colorist, Watts lies between the Venetians and Turner, and in the "Love and Life," in which the theme, more cheerful than in "Love and Death," takes a more joyous tone of color, he resembles Turner most.

The public unused to Watts's work must not expect to understand it as they do the surface work of the popular French painters. His exhibition will be important as art education, but not a primary lesson. Something about art, in all its bearings, must have been learned before it can be profited by.

W. J. STILLMAN.

"SAINTS AND SINNERS."

LONDON, October 15, 1884.

MR. HENRY A. JONES, the joint author of the "Silver King" and "Chatterton," and a weighty contributor to the recent papers on the methods of English playwrights, has just opened the Playgoers' Club in London with an inaugural address of great interest and suggestiveness. The new club consists chiefly of veteran "first-nighters," and its meetings will be occupied with regular discussion and votes upon each new event in the theatrical world, thus producing in time, it is confidently hoped, a body of deliberate and authoritative opinion which playwrights, actors, managers, and the public will alike be bound to consider. The subject of Mr. Jones's inaugural address was "The Modern Drama," and it consisted of an exposition of some of the principles of the dramatic art which are most obscured at the present day, and an eloquent plea for a school of English playwriting, just as there are schools of English poetry, music, landscape, and portrait-painting. In each of these latter, Mr. Jones said, it would be as impossible for a man to rise to sudden distinction, influence, and wealth upon some worthless piece of work, as it would be for him to produce a work of great merit without something like adequate recognition; whereas, with regard to dramatic work, he added, "I can only assure you that the success or failure of any piece at any theatre is to all human judgment a complete lottery, and is as impossible to predict as to predict which side of a penny will fall uppermost when you toss it into the air." Great additional interest, however, is given to Mr. Jones's address by the fact that his latest play, "Saints and Sinners," in which the ideas here presented theoretically are doubtless practically embodied, was successfully produced at the Vaudeville Theatre almost simultaneously with the delivery of the lecture. An excellent opportunity, therefore, of a kind dear to the heart of the true critic, is thus afforded for judging this dramatist's professions by his performances—his theories by his practice;

an opportunity all the more valuable here because the theories, if not new, are old ones resuscitated, and because the play in question has half puzzled critics and audiences by its fearless breaking of new ground.

The two things which would strike a stranger coming to England to report on the drama would be, Mr. Jones thinks, the enormous and ever-growing popularity of the theatre with all classes, and the comparative scarcity of original modern plays of high excellence and serious import. Looking back through any recent year, we must have been forced to confess that, though the reapers have been numerous, the harvest of good, sound, ripe grain, fit to nourish human brains and hearts, has been miserably small. There are many reasons for fear and anxiety, the lecturer went on to say—none, however, for despair, and some for congratulation; but "while our hands have as yet barely touched the plough-shafts, it is not time to chant harvest thanksgivings." The grounds for fear lie in the word "serious" used above. Mr. Jones laid special emphasis on the fact that this does not mean the opposite of "gay and cheerful," but the opposite of "farical and burlesque"; that is, a serious play is not a dull and gloomy one, but one of direct and sincere intention—the "School for Scandal," for example. The rapid growth of the custom of realistic accessories, of the efforts of managers to convince us, by architectural structures, by shipwrecks, by explosions, by earthquakes, by crowds of supers, by tricks of all kinds, that what we are seeing on the stage is the real thing itself, has led, Mr. Jones holds, to a gradual but thorough lack of faith on the part of playgoers, as they have reflected on the attempts thus made to dupe them, in the deeper and essential realities of the drama. From being forced, in mere self-defence, to bear constantly in mind that the hero's palace is wood and painted canvas, and the thunder and lightning which play round him sheet-tin and rosin, it is but a short step to the conviction that the passion and despair he personifies are no less flimsy. Hence the prevalence of a habit of mocking at seriousness in a play, and even at the most necessary conventions of the stage. Hence the growing number of theatres devoted to plays in which everything is avowedly absurd, outrageous, and impossible, and where there are therefore no opportunities for any ridicule more serious than the pieces themselves.

To return to Mr. Jones's own words, "there is a certain spirit of raillery abroad, which is rapidly driving all serious work from the stage," and the proof of this is furnished by the fact that many men whose talent and culture fit them for work of "sincere study of human life and lasting literary value" are employing their pens on farical comedies and burlesques. Mr. Jones, therefore, laid the chief emphasis of his address upon the following proposition:

"Everything that tricks or deceives an audience, or that attempts to trick and deceive an audience, into believing that what they are seeing is real life, instead of being what it is, a suggestion, a representation, a transcript, an abstract of real life, is false, ignoble, unworthy of art, and must sooner or later be abandoned and surrendered."

The two tests to be applied to any play, Mr. Jones told his audience of playgoers, are: "Does it truly paint character?" and "Is it literature?" And the kind of influence most needed on the stage to-day is one akin to that which Wordsworth brought into English poetry at the beginning of this century—"the influence of naturalness, simplicity, thoughtfulness, sincerity, reverence, sheer hard devotion to nature and truth."

Turning now to "Saints and Sinners," as acted at the Vaudeville, we are able at once to see what Mr. Jones means by relying upon the deeper aspects of human life for attraction, and how far

he has ventured to follow out his own teachings about sheer, hard truth to nature. And we may say at once that so clearly does "Saints and Sinners" express the first of these, and so frankly—indeed, almost so recklessly—does it attempt the second, that a brief account of the plot and characters is all that is necessary to complete the comparison. The plot is substantially that of the "Vicar of Wakefield." The Rev. Jacob Fletcher is the old minister of Bethel Chapel in Steepleford. Letty is his charming and innocent daughter. Captain Eustace Fanshawe is the (married) villain who steals her away from her home and her lover George Kingsmill, a farmer. Samuel Hoggard is a tanner and the senior deacon of Bethel, and Prabble is a grocer and the junior deacon. Hoggard is a sanctimonious rascal, of whom the minister makes an enemy by insisting upon an outsider's valuation of some property Hoggard holds belonging to a widow whose trustee he (the minister) is. Prabble he offends by refusing to "make a pulpit question" of the cooperative stores and preach against them. Hoggard and Prabble meet outside the Bethel on Sunday morning before the service. "If I find something against the minister, will you support me?" says the former to the latter. "Certainly Brother Hoggard," is the reply. "Very well, then, I'll make Bethel too hot to hold him!—How welcome is the Sabbath morn', and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity!" and the two deacons pass into chapel together.

A similar scene is when Hoggard is instructing his foreman to claim against the railroad company for damages in transit on some leather which has just arrived in perfect condition. "How much shall I claim?" asks the unwilling foreman. "Oh," replies the pious deacon, reflectively, "claim five pounds. Business is business. You remember the Scripture, 'See'st thou a man diligent in business, he shall stand before kings.' Make it seven pounds!" With similar feeling, the children at the Sunday-school treat are heard singing the hymn "Abide with me," as they gather to go home, while on the stage Fanshawe is just luring the helpless Letty to her fate. Peter Greenacre, the drunkard of the piece—a marvellous piece of character-acting, by the way, equal so far as it goes to Irving's Louis—describes himself as "a monument o' grace."

As may be imagined, such ruthless handling of hypocrisy and selfishness under the cloak of religion has led to a good deal of more or less angry controversy. No one has ventured to impugn the truth of the character-painting, the literary ability of the dialogue, or the dramatic skill shown in the construction of the play. But many people have protested against thus touching places where everybody pretends to be tender. One ingenious clergyman, among many who ask for the excision of the Scripture quotations, takes the trouble to give a list of them. They are: Psalms cxxxiii, 1, 2; Proverbs xxii, 29; Zechariah iii, 2; St. Matthew xxiii, 12; I Cor. iv, 7; Hebrews xiii, 4, besides many vestiges of other texts. It must be added, however, that many clergymen have written both public and private letters to the author, thanking him for his courageous characterization of this privileged humbug. How close the play comes to nature may be judged by the fact that not only were there frequent loud expressions of personal approval from the gallery, but also, when the present writer witnessed it, there were actually to be heard several times in the stalls frank expressions of "Hear, hear!" Such a thing is almost unparalleled among the indifferent fashionable occupants of a London theatre.

The play ends in a more conventional manner: Jacob Fletcher, dismissed from his ministry by Hoggard's wiles, based upon Letty's disgrace, finds an occasion of repaying evil with good by

sheltering *Hoggard* when the latter is pursued by an angry mob from the village for having robbed the Penny Bank, of which he was president; and is at last, all the shame having been bravely "lived down," invited to resume his old ministry at a higher salary, the chapel "having prospered greatly since the Wesleyans shut up." *George Kingsmill* follows *Fanshawe* to India to fight with him, but finds him dying on the battlefield and buries him, and returns home when he has done well in Australia, to marry *Letty* at last. There can be no doubt that Mr. Jones comes out well from the trying test of comparison of principles and practice. Endeavoring to work in the spirit of Wordsworth, he has succeeded, in Wordsworth's own words, in "mixing more lowly matter" with a higher theme, to express the image of a better time, more wise desires and simpler manners. O. R.

GRETRY.

PARIS, October 9, 1884.

AMONG the musicians of the French school who devoted themselves to dramatic music, few are more popular and better known than Grétry. He was born at Liège on February 11, 1741. His most recent biographer, M. Michel Brenet (his biography has been crowned by the Royal Academy of Belgium), gives us some details about his family and his infancy. He was educated, as many children were in those times, as a church-musician. He played the violin in the church of the College of Saint Denis at Liège, and took lessons from Leclerc, who became Capellmeister at Strasbourg. He learned to write a *motet*, a *fugue*, a *symphony*. He studied with an organist, with Moreau, who was Capellmeister at Saint Paul, and, as he showed talent, he was sent to Rome at the expense of a generous canon. There was at that time in Rome a Collège Liégeois, on the Piazza Monte d'Oro, with eighteen rooms for students in law, medicine, music, painting, sculpture, architecture. The students were bound to wear the clerical costume. Grétry spent several years in this college, becoming acquainted with the music of Pergolesi, of Galuppi, of Piccini. His professor was Casali, of the Church of Saint John Lateran. Grétry was not a good pupil in so far that he did not like music as a science, and when he left Rome for Geneva the Abbé Casali gave him this singular letter of recommendation to a friend: "My dear friend, I consign to you one of my pupils, a real donkey and ignoramus in music, but an amiable and well-behaved young man." It is quite true that Grétry had no disposition for classical music, for its traditional forms and combinations; his independent nature looked for the wider horizon of the opera and of dramatic music.

Grétry left Rome on January 1, 1767, and went to Geneva. He had not wasted his time during the eight years which he had spent in Rome, even if the Abbé Casali did call him a donkey. He had made up his mind that the dry and conventional *recitativo* of the opera was defective, and that there ought to be a continual fusion between the action and the song in the opera. He wrote to Voltaire, who was then at Ferney, and begged permission to see him. Voltaire received him very amiably. Grétry asked him for a libretto, but Voltaire had not the time to write it; and Grétry contented himself with setting an existing play to music, Favart's "Isabella and Gertrude." This was played at Geneva with great success, and Voltaire pressed Grétry to go at once to Paris.

A great battle was raging at that time on the question of dramatic music, or, to speak more exactly, between the school of instrumental music and the school of the opera. Grétry was all ready to adopt the maxim, "Outside of the theatre, no music." He had been educated for con-

cert music, but he left it all the more rapidly because he was not a good symphonist. In his *Essays* he speaks of the symphony as an inferior form of art, "reserved for the artist who has an original mind, but who has not sufficient taste and tact to classify new and striking thoughts, in unison with the expression and prosody of language." In his eyes, in order to render the symphonies of Haydn perfect, words ought to be added to them; as it is, they are a mere dictionary for the writer of operas, and their author is "like a botanist who discovers a plant, waiting till the doctor discovers its properties." It is very interesting to compare these opinions with those of Wagner, and one is forcibly reminded of the proverb, "There is nothing new under the sun." Wagner also, like the philosophers of the eighteenth century, considers the opera, the alliance of words and sounds, as the most powerful form of music. He will not leave the thoughts of the audience at liberty, allowing each mind to wander in the infinite world of emotions and to accommodate its own passions to the movement of music. No; he will bind all the hearers to his own thought, attract them all with an overwhelming force. There must be no vagueness, no indecision: the orchestra, the chorus, the singers, all must tend to some definite end.

French aesthetics of the eighteenth century, though differing in its means, did not differ in the ends which it proposed to itself from modern aesthetics; it preferred dramatic music because it offered more precision in the expression and in the imitation of nature. Grétry became, as soon as he arrived in Paris, acquainted with the philosophers. He was patronized by Count Creutz, the Ambassador of Sweden, who had a great passion for music. He saw Suard and Marmontel, who, in order to please Count Creutz, made for him a libretto out of a new *conte* of Voltaire's, "L'Ingénu." The opera was called "The Huron," and was represented on the 20th of August, 1768, at the Italian Comedy. It had an immense success. "M. Grétry," wrote Grimm to his correspondents, "is a young man who has made his first attempt, but his attempt is the masterpiece of a master who places himself at once in the first rank. The style of Grétry is purely Italian. . . . The purity of his style is enchanting. . . . From the most tragical to the comical, from grace to the refinement of a quiet and passionless declamation, there are in his opera models of every character." It is quite true that "The Huron" contains the germ of all the best qualities of Grétry.

Five months after "The Huron," Grétry gave "Lucile," a comedy with *ariettes*. The poetry had been written by Marmontel; it was extremely feeble, but full of what was then called sensibility, and sensibility was the order of the day. One air of "Lucile" has survived; it is the quatour: "Où peut-on être mieux qu'au sein de sa famille?" It became so popular that, during the wars of the Revolution, *émigrés* and Republican officers, when they were united accidentally by an exchange of prisoners, sang it together. When Charette, the famous Vendean General, entered Nantes, his band played it. During the dismal retreat from Russia, when the French army, pursued by the Cossacks, left Smolensk, the Comte de Ségur tells us in his "Memoirs": "The enemy, seeing this column marching in good order, did not dare to attack it otherwise than by artillery. Their bullets were despised, and soon we left them behind us. When the turn came for the grenadiers of the Guard to go through this fire, they walked close around Napoleon, like a fortress in motion, proud to protect him. Their band expressed their pride. In the midst of the greatest danger it played the famous tune, 'Où peut-on être mieux qu'au sein de sa famille?'"

This double triumph persuaded the French pub-

lic that Grétry was *par excellence* the interpreter of sensibility, of pathetic emotions, of gentle affection, of delicate and tender sentiments. He had made his reputation by certain qualities, and these qualities were developed by his reputation. He surprised the public, however, by the exhibition of gaiety in his new opera, the "Tableau Parlant," with which he initiated the French into what the Italians call *opera buffa*. Hitherto the French opera had not dared to be so comic. Grétry became the idol of the public; his scores were heard everywhere. He was received in all the châteaux; he was invited to all the suppers. Mme. Vigée-Lebrun calls him, in her "Memoirs," "cet aimable Grétry." He was twenty eight years old, and his health was somewhat delicate.

Marmontel wrote for him a new libretto—he tells us himself in his charming "Memoirs," under what circumstances:

"In the interval between 'Lucile' and 'Silvain' I had composed a comic opera in three acts out of my *conte* which is entitled 'The Connoisseur.' I read it to a small company. Grétry was charmed with it, Mme. la Ruette and Clairval applauded, but Caillot was cold and mute [they were all three actors at the Italian Comedy]. 'You are not pleased,' said I; 'speak freely,' Caillot gave his reasons. 'Ladies and gentlemen,' said I, 'we are all fools: Caillot alone is right,' and I threw my manuscript in the fire. Grétry wept with sorrow and left me so desolate that it made me unhappy. My impatience to see him out of this state kept me awake, and I wrote the first scenes of 'Sylvain.' In the morning Grétry arrived: 'I have not slept all night,' 'Nor I,' said I. 'Sit down and listen,' and I read him my plan and two scenes. 'This time,' said I, 'I am sure of my affair, and I promise you a success.'"

The success came, and was very great. I cannot follow Grétry in the development of his full career. The list of his operas is very long, extending from 1767 to 1803, and occupies as many as four pages in the work of M. Brenet. This work is full of curious anecdotes. After the representation of one of his operas, Grétry was presented to Rousseau, and they left the theatre together. In the street they found a heap of stones; Grétry offered his arm to Rousseau to get over it. The philosopher at once became irritated: "Let me use my own strength," said he, with an angry voice, and their relations came to an end.

The success of Gluck at the Opera interrupted the triumph of Grétry. Gluck gave in 1774 his "Iphigenia at Aulis" and his "Orpheus and Eurydice." A new style was created, and the public compared the two musicians. The enthusiasts did not think it possible to admire at the same time Gluck and Grétry. The latter had the audacity to try his hand at the theatre where Gluck was frantically applauded; but his "Cephalus and Procris" could bear no comparison with its rivals. "This music," writes Mlle. de Lespinasse, "has the green sickness. My friend Grétry must content himself with the agreeable, sensible, witty style; it is quite enough. And when a man is well proportioned in his small size, it is often dangerous for him to go on stilts: he falls on his nose, and the passers by laugh." Grétry quarrelled with Marmontel, and sought his libretti from d'Hèle, Sedaine, and some others. Sedaine wrote for him "Richard Cœur de Lion," an opera which has become classical and is still popular. A great admirer of Wagner, M. Schuré, who has written an interesting work on "The Music Drama" and the great reformer of the modern opera, highly praises the "Richard" of Grétry. "If we hear it," he says, "after some of the modern operas, we have the sensation of a man who finds himself transported from one of our vulgar public gardens into the midst of the real country, with its undulating hills and its refreshing breezes." The scene in

which *Richard*, from his prison, "hears the voice of his minstrel in the air, 'Une fièvre brûlante,' and in which he sings it in his turn, is one of the finest we know; the song becomes a part of the action, and is all the more eloquent."

Towards 1786 Grétry began to write about his art, and continued to do so for a long time. In 1789 he published the first volume of his 'Essays on Music.' His fortune and reputation were made when the Revolution broke out. On the 1st of August, 1793, the Convention issued this decree: "Any theatre which dares to represent plays tending to resuscitate the superstition of royalty will be closed, and the directors will be punished with the full rigor of the law." This was no time for "Richard." Grétry was obliged to write the music for the first representation of the "Fête de la Raison" (the words were by Silvain Maréchal), which became afterward the "Rosière Républicaine," a piece which outraged religion and was a vulgar manifestation of atheism. This was, alas! not the only play of the Revolutionary period which he wrote. The only excuse for his weakness must be found in the fear which also determined Méhul, Cherubini, Dalayrac to become his collaborators in the music of "Le Congrès des Rois." He was ruined; he had lost all his places. His republicanism was soon reconciled to the Empire. He retired to the Ermitage of Rousseau, spent in the valley of Montmorency his last years, and died on the 24th of September, 1813.

Correspondence.

MORE LIGHT ON THE LITTLE ROCK FRANCHISE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his personal explanation in the House of Representatives on the 25th day of April, 1876, Mr. Blaine made the following statement:

"The [Little Rock and Fort Smith] Company derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State [of Arkansas], and to the State the company is amenable and answerable, and not in any sense to Congress. . . . The Little Rock Road derived all that it had from the State of Arkansas, and not from Congress."

The falsity of this statement has already been established beyond a peradventure by a mere examination of the acts of Congress touching the land grant to the State for the benefit of the road. Congress granted the lands to the State to aid in the construction of a road with certain termini; the Little Rock Company was the beneficiary of that grant, and the lands were to be received by the State "subject to the disposal of the Legislature thereof, for the purposes aforesaid, and no other." The Act also provided that if the road should not be completed within ten years, the unsold lands were to revert to the United States (Act of February 9, 1853, 10 Stats., 155).

The time within which the company might earn its grant was twice afterwards extended: first, by the Act of July 28, 1866 (14 Stats., 338), and secondly, by the Act of April 10, 1869 (16 Stats., 46). A still later Act, that of March 8, 1870 (do., 76), repealed the oft-mentioned proviso that the granted lands should "be sold to actual settlers only, in quantities not greater than one-quarter section to one purchaser, for a price not exceeding two dollars and fifty cents per acre."

In addition to this, there is another consideration, which I have never seen adverted to, and which wholly disposes of Mr. Blaine's assertion in this particular. The object of his assertion was to give the impression that, after having made the grant to the State, for the purposes of the road "and no other," Congress could have

nothing further to do with the subject in the way of legislation. Certain Acts of Congress and of its committees at the last session throw an interesting light upon this feature of Mr. Blaine's really audacious defence.

At the last session many bills for the forfeiture of land grants were introduced into both houses; among the roads concerned being the Northern Pacific and a great number of roads in Mississippi, Louisiana, Kansas, Iowa, Michigan, California, Oregon, and other States. In nearly all these cases the grants were similar to the Little Rock and Fort Smith grants; that is, the grants were made to the States, with the provisions, (1) that when the States should certify to the General Land Office that specified lengths of road had been completed, patents should issue accordingly; and (2) that in case of non-completion of the roads within a given time the unpatented (or unsold) lands within the limits of the grants should revert to the United States.

The roads in question not having been completed within the designated time, it became necessary to consider whether the grants *ipso facto* reverted to the United States, or whether further action by Congress or the courts was necessary to that end. The latter view prevailed; and then these inquiries arose:

1. Does Congress (as against the courts) possess the power to declare a forfeiture of the lands?

2. If Congress does possess such power, does a sound public policy require that it should be exercised?

Both these inquiries the Committees on Public Lands answered in the affirmative, notwithstanding the first of them is a question about which able lawyers differ; and in at least one case Congress acted accordingly, by forfeiting a grant. In a dozen or more cases reports favorable to forfeiture were submitted and now await action at the hands of Congress.

Suppose that those two inquiries had arisen with respect to the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road—as they might well have done—during Mr. Blaine's continuance in Congress: how would he have answered them? how much would his answer have depended upon his determination not to "prove a deadhead in the enterprise"? and how forcibly would Caldwell and Fisher have realized that "Blaine [was] an important man to have felt all right toward" them?—Respectfully,

HENRY E. DAVIS.

WASHINGTON, October 21, 1884.

APROPPOS OF THE CINCINNATI VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friend employed in the Cincinnati Post-office (at \$75 per month) writes October 20: "I am just now run very close; for there have been a multitude of expenses. . . . Then, too, came our 'gift' for party purposes. Still, since Tuesday [election day] I don't regret that \$18 one iota. By the way, most of the boys did not pay it [sic] until the last day or two, so it was not wasted, as it sometimes is." Italics, etc., are his own.

The monthly pay-roll at the Cincinnati Post-office amounts to many thousands of dollars. The assessment was evidently one-fourth of one month's salary. What a corruption fund from this single source alone! And in the great majority of cases extorted by methods as outrageous as the "Money, or your life!" of the footpad.

But this virtual robbery of Government employees is a trifling thing compared with the crime against the national life, in superseding (so far as possible) the free, spontaneous expression of the popular will with coerced and purchased votes. Is it not time to call a halt in this matter? Can the American people afford to accept Steve Elkins's dictum that the settling of a

Presidential election is "mainly a matter of finance"? The praetorian guards used to put up the imperial purple at auction; but that, as all know, was in the evil days of Rome. Is it possible that these our times have become not merely so degenerate that the Presidency of the Republic can be bought by an unscrupulous jobber, but also become so party-blind, so insensate, as to let him buy it with money he has rifled from the pockets of honest men? As an original Republican (who was "no dead-head" in the times when Republicanism meant principles, and not chiefly position or plunder) I am not prepared to believe it—not yet, at least.—Yours respectfully,

E. HANNAFORD.

ST. LOUIS, MO.

[We have circumstantial evidence that the party tax on Federal employees in the light-houses and custom-houses along the Lake and Canadian frontier was \$15, and that numerous checks for this amount from that region have come to this city for the endorsement and use of the National Republican Committee.—ED. NATION.]

BLAINE NOT VINDICATED BY THE HOUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you please state in your columns whether or not the House of Representatives by a vote vindicated Mr. Blaine upon the charges upon which he was being investigated, and from which investigation he was relieved by a timely attack of sickness, sunstroke or something?

I ask the above because many Republicans in this section contend that, subsequently to Mr. Blaine's attack, the House had a vote on the matter and fully vindicated Mr. B., and affirm that he was nominated to the Senate before the time of adjournment of the investigating committee expired, and the House, having no jurisdiction over a Senator, did not call up the matter. I have written to several papers in this section of the country about this, but can get no answer.

A. N. X.

FORT LEAVENWORTH, KAN., October 19, 1884.

[There was no such vindication by the House.—ED. NATION.]

CORRUPTION BY EXAMPLE IN HIGH PLACES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As some of your correspondents have lately been quoting the classics, relative to the present political contest, I offer this from the 'De Legibus' of Cicero III., 14, 31.

"Nec enim tantum mali est peccare principes, quamquam est magnum hoc per se ipsum malum, quantum illud, quod permulti imitatores principum existunt. Nam licet videre, si velis replicare memoriam temporum, qualescumque summi civitatis viri fuerunt, talem civitatem fuisse; quaecumque mutatio morum in principibus existit, eandem in populo secutam. . . . Quo pernicius de republica merentur vitiosi principes, quod non solum vitia concipiunt ipsi, sed ea infundunt in civitatem; neque solum obsunt, ipsi quod corrumpuntur, sed etiam quod corrumpunt, plusque exemplo quam peccato nocent. . . . Favei enim, atque admodum pauci, honore et gloria amplificati, vel corrumpere mores civitatis, vel corrigere possunt."

Independents here are few, but steadfast.

W. A. M.

CINCINNATI, October 20.

THE REPUBLICAN REFUSAL TO EXPLAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent observations on the debasing influence of the Republican nominations has al-

ready been remarkably verified by a friend of mine. This gentleman has never voted other than the Republican ticket, but it is known that he may decline to vote for Mr. Blaine. He has offered at different times to five partisans of Mr. Blaine, men usually reasonable and of excellent reputation, that if even a plausible explanation could be given of contradictions in Mr. Blaine's letters to Mr. Fisher, he would vote the Republican ticket in November. He cited three contradictions whose elucidation would satisfy him. Each one of the gentlemen to whom he applied declined to offer any explanation, and each stated that if there was any conflict it did not matter. Each one of them acknowledged that Mr. Blaine while Speaker sold bonds on commission for Mr. Fisher, but that in doing so he did nothing wrong. This is the magnetism of their candidate. T.

Ontio, October 20, 1884.

A CLEAN SINNER AND A DIRTY SAINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have noted that the velvet knight from Maine is as smooth to the rub of the clergy as to a rub from any other direction whatever. It is a matter of surprise to me that the straightforward, business-like New York Governor has not superior charms to men especially trained to appreciate such differences as the two men present. To my own clerical vision it seems very much like a choice between a clean sinner and a dirty saint. Knowing as I do that fastidiousness which makes the clerical nature gravitate to a clean heretic sooner than to an unsavory devotee, I wonder the more that in political types the latter is preferred to the former. Legions of ministers are swallowing the saintly demagogue from Maine who have no more confidence in his character than they have in Butler's. Quite a spectacle this: a lot of religious teachers shutting the eyes of their understandings and opening the eyes of their prejudices, and acting in politics precisely as the hoodlums act, and for the same reason. For the man who has an enlightened understanding and will not use it to seriously weigh unwelcome facts, lest they necessitate hostility to party, and courageous exposure of "magnetic" hypocrisy, is surely acting from no loftier motive than the man who has no understanding and does not miss it as he "hurrahs," shoulders his smoky torch, and votes. These brethren condemn Butler with a most holy unanimity; but behold! a worse than Butler is here, and yet they are constrained to preach him up as the "home preserver," because a few ministers in Buffalo, out of mistaken charity, form a ring around a fussy old clerical scandal-monger, to save him from the natural end of his filthy appetite. The only difference between the two B's is that Butler's type of demagoguery is the less dangerous. One has a transient power to bewitch the hoodlums and the humble citizen ignorant of the ways of his betterment—the other the far more dangerous power to confuse, as we see, the teachers of morals and religion, and to render our highest and solidest political standards as hollow as a worm-eaten nut.

Clergymen ought, from the very nature of things, to show more downright political independence than any other class of men, because they have, without doubt, the two essentials to independent political action—intelligence, and a strong sense of right and wrong. If they would freely, fairly, and fearlessly use both in this contest, they would not choose the saint who fills two pews in an orthodox church, but is stained with the dirt of all the jobbery of our later politics, in preference to the sinner in the Capitol at Albany, who turns night into day that his whole

duty to the people may be done.—Respectfully yours,
BAPTIST CLERGYMAN.
MASSACHUSETTS, October 24, 1884.

CHINESE PERSECUTION IN CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have taken some interest in the Chinese question, so called, which so much agitates the public mind of the Pacific Coast, I take the liberty to bring to your attention a ruling of the California State Superintendent of Public Instruction upon the right of children born of Chinese parents in the United States to enter the public schools of California. The following is cut from the *San Francisco Chronicle* of Saturday, October 11, 1884:

"The following letter, just received, is self-explanatory:

"SACRAMENTO, October 7, 1884.

"Hon. A. J. Moulder, Superintendent of Schools, etc.:

"DEAR SIR: In your letter of yesterday you say that your attention has been called to a recent decision of Justices Field, Sawyer, Hoffman, and Sabin, to be found in full in . . . , stating that a child born in this country of Mongolian parents is a citizen of the United States and entitled to all the privileges of such citizen.

"You wish me to answer whether an exception to my ruling on the general question is admissible in the particular case of Joseph Tape, a Chinaman, who demands admittance to the public schools for his daughter, who, he alleges, is native born, and in similar cases. I beg leave to say that I do not think that an officer of the State is bound to take official notice of decisions of courts purporting to have been reported in the newspapers; that I have no knowledge that the Court had before them a case wherein arose the question of the right of native-born children to enter the public schools of the State. Finally, it is a question, as yet, in my mind, whether a Federal court has the power to condemn the State of California to undergo the expense of educating the children of Chinese, when the presence of such foreigners is declared by the Constitution 'to be dangerous to the well-being of the State.'

"Respectfully yours,

"WILLIAM T. WELCKER,

"Superintendent of Public Instruction.

"The Chinese, as you are aware," remarked Superintendent Moulder to a reporter of the *Chronicle*, "are a nation of perjurers, and, if admitted, would doubtless soon overrun our schools, to the exclusion and detriment of the white children. You may say that, acting in conformity with the advice of the State Superintendent, I shall continue to deny any of the sons and daughters of Chinese the right of admittance into the public schools of San Francisco."

The Joseph Tape referred to in the above article is one of my neighbors. He is a Chinaman who has adopted the American costume, cut off his queue, adopted American customs, lives far removed from China Town, in a respectable neighborhood, and is a taxpayer. He is a member of the Presbyterian Church, and deacon thereof. His wife and children dress in the American costume. His three children were born in San Francisco, and are as well dressed and well behaved, as neat and clean, as any children in his neighborhood.

The "Superintendent Moulder" referred to in the above article is the Democratic Superintendent of Public Instruction of the city and county of San Francisco, State of California. What are we coming to?—Respectfully yours,

A CONSTANT READER.

"THE ACADIAN TRAGEDY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That accomplished author and essayist, Francis Parkman, contributes a paper to *Harper's* for November, entitled "The Acadian Tragedy." The key-note to the article is given in the following sentence:

"Abbé Raynal, who knew nothing of these people except from hearsay, has drawn an ideal picture of them, which later writers have copied

and embellished, till Acadia has become Acadia."

Says Parkman:

"New England humanitarianism, melting into sentimentality at a tale of woe, has been unjust to its own. Whatever judgment may be passed on the cruel measure of wholesale expatriation, it was not put into execution until every source of patience and persuasion had been tried and failed. The agents of the French court, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, had made some act of force a necessity. The Government of Louis XV. began with making the Acadians its tools, and ended with making them its victims."

The foregoing, if we rightly understand it, may be reduced to this:

There was no wrong perpetrated against the Neutrals in this unhappy affair.

The wrong that the English perpetrated against the Neutrals was put into execution only as a last resort.

The wrong that was perpetrated against the Neutrals Louis XV. of France, and his agents, were alone responsible for.

Again: "It was a part of the scheme of operation, audacious as it was comprehensive, by which the British and Colonial authorities resolved this year to anticipate a declaration of war, and force back the French along the whole line of their alleged encroachments. Braddock was to attack Fort Duquesne on the Ohio, Johnson was to attack Brown Point on Lake Champlain, Shirley was to attack Fort Niagara, and Monckton was to attack Fort Beauséjour."

Thus it appears that the descent of the English upon Acadia was made in a time of peace. Besides, as Mr. Parkman elsewhere observes, the Acadians did not profess allegiance to France at all, but for more than forty years had constituted an English colony; in fact, most of them had been born under the British flag. According to his own showing, therefore, the English cannot justify the act as a war measure, done in time of actual hostilities against an armed enemy. We fully agree with him, that the scheme was an audacious one.

And again:

"Another war was plainly at hand, and France meditated the reconquest of Acadia. To this end, the Acadians must be kept French at heart, and ready, at a signal given, to rise against the English. France had acknowledged them as British subjects, but this did not prevent the agents of Louis XV. from seeking by incessant intrigues to stir them into bitter hostility against the British Government. . . . The loss of Acadia had been gall and wormwood to France. That she would soon seek to recover it was certain; and with the temper which she had infused into the population, there could be no doubt that at the appearance of the French squadron in the Bay of Fundy, the whole country would rise in arms.

The presence of this disaffected population in the province was for the French commanders a continual inducement to invasion, and Lawrence could not cope with attack from without and insurrection from within. Such are the reasons which explain and palliate measures too harsh to be wholly justified."

Thus we are told that the expulsion of the Acadian people was brought about not by what they had done, but by what the English thought they would do, in the war that had not yet taken place, but which the English thought would take place, with France.

Suppose we try the effect of the light of historical facts on the fine-spun theory of our learned essayist. If, as he avers, Lawrence and his coadjutors mainly justify their action on the alleged disposition of the Acadian people to take up arms with the French, we, on our part, purpose showing that not only did Lawrence, at the time, have positive knowledge that the Acadian French had proved themselves, on occasion, free from that disposition, but also that he had committed himself to that opinion.

In March, 1744, France declared war against England. Du Quesnel, the French Governor of Cape Breton, sent Du Vivier, his captain, to

attack the English posts in Acadia. The forts were in a ruinous condition, and feebly garrisoned; there were 4,000 Acadians capable of bearing arms; nothing was easier, could that people be induced to revolt, than to throw off the English yoke. Du Vivier took post at Grand Pré, from whence he issued orders impressing teams and drivers for his service, and requiring supplies of grain and meat, and calling upon the inhabitants to pledge fidelity to the King of France. Here then was just the opportunity for the Neutrals to exhibit the treasonable tendencies accorded them by British apologists. Did they seize on the occasion to cut the throats of their English neighbors? They replied in this strain:

"While there would be no difficulty, by virtue of the strong force you command, in supplying yourself with the quantity of grain and meat you have ordered, it would be quite impossible to furnish the quantity you demand without placing ourselves in great peril. We hope, gentlemen, that you will not plunge us and our families into a state of total loss; and that this consideration will cause you to withdraw your savages and troops from our districts. We live under a mild and tranquil government, and we have all good reason to be faithful to it.

"JACQUES LE BLANC AND OTHERS.

"MINAS, October 10, 1744."

Governor Mascarene writes in December of that year, referring to the failure of Du Vivier's expedition:

"To the breaking the French measures, to the timely succour received from Massachusetts, and our French inhabitants refusing to take up arms against us, we owe our preservation. . . . If the inhabitants had taken up arms they might have brought three or four thousand men against us."

If Mr. Parkman will consult the "Nova Scotia Archives," he will there find, in a letter written to the Board of Trade by Governor Lawrence, bearing date of Halifax, August 1, 1754, these words: "I believe that a very large part of the inhabitants would submit to any terms rather than take up arms on either side." Another letter written by Lawrence to the Board of Trade in October, 1755, contains this statement, which may help to throw light on the motives of those engaged in this "audacious scheme":

"As soon as the French are gone, I shall use my best endeavors to encourage people to come from the Continent, to settle their lands, and if I succeed in this point we shall soon be in a condition of supplying ourselves with provisions, and I hope in time to be able to strike off the great expense of victualling the troops. This was one of the happy effects I proposed to myself from driving the French off the isthmus; and the additional circumstance of the inhabitants evacuating the country will, I flatter myself, greatly hasten this event, as it furnishes us with a large quantity of good land ready for immediate cultivation."

In the Archives already mentioned is a charge made by Captain Murray, that at one time the Neutrals "behaved with the greatest insolence, though just before they had been unusually submissive. He thought that this change of demeanor was due to a report that had got among them of a French fleet in the Bay of Fundy; for it had been observed that any rumor of an approaching French force always had a similar effect." The same likewise contains a letter from Governor Mascarene, in which is the following: "The frequent rumors we have had of war being declared against France have not as yet made any alteration in the temper of the inhabitants of this province, who appear in a good disposition of keeping to their oath of fidelity."

Here are two conflicting statements recorded in the same volume. The word of the Governor of a province ought to go as far as that of the captain of a blockhouse. Is it intentional on the part of Mr. Parkman, or is it through mere inadvertence, that he gives place only to the one statement which favors the English view of the question?

Our essayist states that Lawrence enlarged upon the treachery, obstinacy, and ingratitude of the Acadians for the favor, indulgence, and protection they had received from the English Government. When constrained to mention some overt act of which they had been guilty, he goes on to say that at the fall of Fort Beauséjour, "in it, along with the regular garrison, were found 300 Acadians, self-styled Neutrals, fighting against the power of whom most of them were the legal subjects." Can it be that Mr. Parkman has not learned that the "300 Acadians" who were present in the fort were there under threatening orders; and that Colonel Monckton, to whom the place capitulated, and who must have known the circumstances, granted them full and free pardon? Would he lay the pardoned offence of a few at the door of thousands of unoffending people? And this is the only instance in the whole forty years that the Acadians lived under English rule in the province, in which a considerable number of them were found under arms against the Government.

We notice one more statement by Mr. Parkman. He says, speaking of the preparations for embarkation: "It was also provided that the members of each family should remain together." Does he mean to parry the question, or does he intend the reader shall draw an inference that friends were not separated, without a committal on the part of himself? It is a fact conceded by all authorities, that the separation of families was the most cruel feature of the whole proceeding.

But we will not multiply objections further. If, as Mr. Parkman states, the affair has been "ill understood, both in its causes and its events," it is to be feared his article will not entirely remedy the difficulty. We would propound to British apologists one question: If the English concerned in the Acadian eviction were conscious of the rectitude of their intentions, and were secure in the belief their course would be justified by a full knowledge of attendant circumstances, why were the entire French records coming into their hands destroyed, and the archives of Nova Scotia rifled of the documents covering the year of expulsion?

PHILIP H. SMITH.

PAWLING, N. Y., October 23.

THE CONSCIENTIOUS INDEPENDENT VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are some of us Independents who accept fully the premise set forth in your editorial on "Political Neutrality," October 9th, that a man's vote is not his private property to be used for his own selfish gratification, but a sacred trust to be used for the welfare of the whole country, yet who derive from it a conclusion exactly the opposite of yours as to how it should be cast in this coming election. It seems to us, as Henry Cabot Lodge said to the Republican Convention last May, that the supreme demand of the country for its welfare is a Presidential candidate of "unblemished character"—assuming, of course, that he is intellectually capable, and that the platform he stands upon is not preponderantly bad. Now, as regards the intellectual capacity of the candidates named in your article, whatever superiority one or two may have, each has enough of it for all the duties of the place; and as regards the platforms, each from the Independent standpoint is of about equal value, which is not saying much. The main difference is in the reputation of the men morally, one being of blemished character for honesty, and another of blemished character for chastity, but the third with nothing worse against him than that he is a Prohibitionist; and so, though we are not all Prohibitionists, yet believing with Mr. Cabot Lodge that the supreme demand of

the country is for a capable man of unblemished character, and with you that the ballot is a sacred trust to be used for the country's welfare, we propose to vote for the man whose only drawback is a wish to deprive his fellow-citizens of the means of getting drunk.

Your argument that as either Blaine or Cleveland will be elected, the conscientious voter ought to vote for the best one of these two, and that to vote for a third man, however good he may be, is to throw his ballot away, has been the argument of "the practical politician" from the very beginning of political parties, and it is not a little astonishing to see it now brought forward by the *Nation* as new and solid logic. We who are Independents and mean to remain so, have long since learned not to let our heads be brought for punishment into any such "chancery." When the two great parties were the Whigs and Democrats, each pro-slavery, though in different degrees, and there was no possibility of electing an anti-slavery candidate, and we were told that therefore it was our duty as conscientious men to vote for the least bad of the pro-slavery candidates, we spurned the advice and gave our votes for the hopeless Fremont; and certainly the history of the country for the last twenty-eight years has not shown they were "thrown away."

The only way by which the little band of Independents in the country can hope to secure good nominations at political conventions is by refusing to vote at the polls for bad ones. If there were only two parties in the field, one with a good candidate and the other with a bad one—Blaine, for instance—no matter how hopeless the election of the good one might be, we should feel that the only honest use of our vote as a public trust would be to throw it for the one we believed in as a man; and because there are three parties in the field, two bad and strong, and one good but feeble, we do not see why we are not equally bound to use it in the same way now, rebuking with all our might both of the bad ones. Suppose that at the coming election a million of votes are cast against both Blaine and Cleveland, and for St. John, simply on the ground that voters do not approve of either the Republican or the Democratic nominee: what would these be but a million voices saying to the politicians of all parties that under no circumstances will we vote for a man who is morally unsound either in public or private life? And is there any other way in which those votes can be made to count so much for the country's welfare? Or, suppose that St. John were to be elected, as he would be if every citizen who really disapproves of each of the other candidates were to disregard the "practical politician's" argument, and vote for him not simply as a Prohibitionist, but as a clean man, just as we Independents should vote for Cleveland not as a Democrat but as a clean man, if he was unblemished—the influence of the lesson would be felt on political conventions as long as the country should live. It is in this direction that every vote for the third party counts. We cast it not for the present election alone, but for all the elections to come; and though it be apparently thrown away to-day, yet, like the old anti-slavery votes against both Whigs and Democrats, it shall count a thousand-fold to-morrow.

Your comparison that to vote for any one else than either Blaine or Cleveland would be like the conduct of a passenger on shipboard at sea who should refuse to vote for a successor to the deceased captain at all because the candidates were both profane, or should cast it in a corner by himself for some religious mariner on land, fails, because in this case the good mariner is not on land but on the ship, and has no drawback to his capability except that he believes the ship would be better off with no intoxicating liquor on board. A comparison truer to the facts would

be where the rowdies on one side had put up one of their set as candidate for the captaincy, and the thieves on the other one of theirs, and where the honest and peaceable passengers, numbering nine-tenths of all on board, were told they must choose between these two rather than one of fifty other good men on board, equally capable of running the ship, because, forsooth, the two bad men had been regularly nominated, while neither, or at best only one of the others, and he only by a handful, had been thus set up. It is advice that we Independents on the Ship of State do not mean to take. We shall vote against the blemished candidates any way, and many of us for the one fairly capable whose only fault is his being, perhaps, a little over-clean, as the best way in which to use our vote as a public trust.

K.

HARTFORD, CT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your criticism of the attitude of those who refuse to vote either for Blaine or Cleveland, you argue from an assumption to which they do not assent; and also, it seems to me, you defeat the end for which you contend. In the first place you assume that there is more at stake in the choice between these two candidates than appears to them to be the fact. To be sure, one or the other of them will be the next President. No one denies that. But it is a matter of indifference to them which, since they feel that either crew, headed by its respective captains, is equally objectionable, and that the real issue is not in the choice of one or the other candidate in the present canvass, but in influencing the nominations in the future.

First, they see that the Republican crew, as represented by Captain Blaine, stands for just that which must inevitably run the Ship of State on the rocks of political corruption, while the Democratic crew which stands back of Captain Cleveland, without saying anything about its political morality, has ever shown ability to make blunders when it had the best of opportunities to win the confidence of the country, and so does not promise any better to the Ship of State than the other crew.

Second, while totally repelled by that of which they believe Blaine stands convicted, viz., the use of public office and power for private gain, they are no less repelled by that which they believe is forced upon their attention in Cleveland's private character. They are, rather perhaps from reasons of sentiment than of clearly thought-out convictions, revolted at the thought of lending their hand to install in the White House, the social centre of the nation, a man they at least are not yet convinced is pure.

Now you may answer that, in such a case, questions of sentiment in reference to social character must give way to questions of principle in reference to political character. And you may say that in a storm you cannot be too particular about questions of chastity concerning the captain who must command the ship. They agree to all that, and, at such a time as the great slavery struggle, the personal purity of Calhoun would not have had a feather's weight with them as against the questionable private character of Webster. But they deny, first, the storm, second, that there is a choice between the crews. Of course you may reply that there is a storm, and that there is a choice between the crews, and argue that denial of it is evidence of moral blindness. But right here they take issue with you, and until you convince them of the actual presence of a storm now, and of the ability of the Democratic crew headed by Captain Cleveland to navigate them through it safely, they cannot go with you. Your able editorials, so convincing

in reference to their duty to Mr. Blaine, have not led them out of this difficulty.

You may ask what do they propose to do? They propose to do what a great many did awhile ago, and, if I mistake not, under your advice—"to scratch," and so show that the party that desires their ballots in the next election must offer them a man who shocks their moral sense neither in social nor political matters, and that demonstrates to them its intention and ability to handle the ship wisely and honestly. In other words, the real living issue to them is, not the present matter of victory of one or the other side in this election, but the remoter matter of a moral elevation of the standard of both parties, and particularly of that one most subject to it, the Republican party, to which they are attached by ties of the past, many sympathies in the present, and hopes for the future. They look towards a wise restraint put upon whichever of the crews will man the ship for the next four years, and the preparation of a competent crew, wise and righteous, to take the helm in the years that follow.

In the second place, you seem to me to defeat in a measure the end for which you contend with these so-called political neutrals (they are not neutrals; they vote as much when they withhold their votes as when they cast them for a third candidate), by driving many who are led by sentiment rather than by reason to finally cast their ballot for Blaine. You might contend that they ought to vote for Cleveland, but, if they cannot righteously do that, they can no more righteously vote for Blaine, and so must "scratch" the Republican ticket. This I fancy would serve your purpose better than your present course.

H. G. L.

[To "K." we have to say that we do not concede that each of the two candidates, Blaine and Cleveland, has enough "intellectual capacity" for "all the duties of the place." We hold, on the contrary, that in his intellectual capacity, as in his moral character, Blaine is fatally unfit for the place. We find the proof of this in his failure to identify himself during his twenty years in Congress with any useful or important measure of legislation; in his blundering management of the Panama Canal controversy—of his own making—with England, and his blundering and dangerous management of the controversy with Chili during his short term in the State Department, and in the wild character of such schemes as the distribution of the whiskey tax and the payment of the Virginia debt. As to "K.'s" argument on the proper use of the vote, it seems to have been written without a careful reading of the article which he criticises. We pointed out that in no way can a man refrain from voting for one of the two candidates, one of whom is certain to win, without giving a vote to the other, except by pairing. "K." does not show how it can be done. If a Republican fails to vote for Blaine, he gives a vote to Cleveland. If a Democrat fails to vote for Cleveland, he gives a vote to Blaine. Voting for a third candidate does not help him out of the difficulty. A Republican vote for St. John is a vote for Cleveland. A Democratic vote for Butler is a vote for Blaine. Moreover, a vote for St. John does not signify to the world at large dissatisfaction with the character of either Blaine or Cleveland. It signifies to the world at large belief that prohibition is the most important question of the day. The only way to let all

the world know beyond mistake that you are rebuking unchastity, is to vote for a candidate who runs on his chastity; or that you are rebuking dishonesty, by voting for one who runs on his honesty.

It is true the good mariner is in the ship, but does not "K." see that he might, for the purposes of the argument, just as well be on shore, because under no circumstances can he get the command? His own "truer comparison" is fatally defective, because "nine-tenths of all on board" are not dissatisfied with the two candidates. The great bulk of both parties are quite satisfied. It is important to remember this, because it is this which makes the running of what we may call private candidates so absurd.

"H. G. L." wants us to convince him that there is now a storm, and that Captain Cleveland with a Democratic crew can navigate him through it with safety. A storm is one of those things which no dialectician is ever called on to prove. Every man fit to be argued with is supposed to know whether a storm is raging or not. In all these discussions over the comparative merits of Blaine and Cleveland, the existence of a storm is assumed. We are not called on, nor have we undertaken, to prove that Cleveland will navigate us through it in safety. We believe he will, and predict it freely. Our thesis is that there *is* a storm, and that circumstances have so shaped themselves that either Cleveland or Blaine is sure, let Independent or conscience-voters do what they please, to command the ship at this crisis, and that no man can escape the responsibility of helping to decide which it shall be. This, we make bold to say, we have proved. "H. G. L.'s" plan of getting out of the scrape by "scratching" is somewhat simple-minded. "Scratching" is, of course, as explained above, simply a mode of giving a vote to the other party without formally casting a ballot. Whoever scratches Blaine practically votes for Cleveland, and *e converso*.—ED. NATION.]

A PROTECTIONIST SUBTERFUGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The New York Tribune of 26th inst. says: "The 2,500 employees of the Washington Cotton Mills, at Lawrence, Mass., must be anxiously looking forward to November 4, since their bread and butter largely depends upon the way the election goes. The business of the mills has been so injured by the tariff agitation of the last year that the owners have decided to shut down until the tariff questions which so largely affect their prosperity have been definitely settled. If Blaine is elected, the mills will start up again; if the Democrats are successful, they will stay closed. It would take considerable ingenuity to turn this situation into an argument for free trade."

"This is too preposterous. Three years ago last January the Washington Mills, being then undoubtedly insolvent, declared a dividend of 4 per cent. Under the influence of this dividend, the knowing ones sold more or less of their shares to greenhorns, who were of course swindled. A few months afterward the prime manager of the concern died, and then its rottenness was developed.

Since then the struggle in it has been, not for existence even, but for a favorable time for liquidation. Finally, last February, a committee was appointed to arrange its obsequies. The better sentiment of that committee was in favor of stopping the wheels then, at once, but the majority prevailed to have the materials, then on hand, worked up; and all agreed that the whole

property, mills and all, should be sold as soon as practicable. Those materials have been worked up, and the mills are closed, waiting for a purchaser.

The "tariff agitation of last year," or of any other year, has had no more to do with the stopping of those mills than the Tenterden Steeple with the Goodwin Sands. **

VANDALISM AT THE CAPITOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For several months past a force of men has been at work holystoning the marble exteriors of the Capitol at Washington. The mellow, creamy tint which thirty years of exposure to the atmosphere had bestowed upon the marble wings of this stately building, and which blended so charmingly with the green lawns, abundant foliage, and glowing skies of the surrounding park, has all gone, and the stone is restored to the hardness and ghastliness which characterizes freshly-cut white marble.

The climax of vandalism was capped this morning, when a party of scrubbers was set to work upon the allegorical group of statuary in the pediment of the east portico of the Senate wing. The effect is as if the softly-toned figures had been treated to a coat of whitewash.

It will take a quarter of a century, at least, to repair the mischief done, and, worse yet, the pressure for "a job" and the average Congressman's ideas of a "cleaning up" are sure to lead to frequent repetitions of the mischief, unless the artists and architects of the country shall come to the rescue of our chief national building.

C. F. B.

WASHINGTON, October 24, 1884.

THE ETYMOLOGY OF "BUG."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Skeat's 'Etymological Dictionary,' under *bug*, he compares Welsh *bug*, Gallic *bocan*, Cornish *bucca*, a hobgoblin, a spectre, and Irish *púca*, an elf, a sprite. Now in Dyer's 'Folk-lore of Shakespeare' there is shown the identity, in the mind of the people, of Puck, Robin Goodfellow, Hobgoblin, Will-o'-the-wisp, Ignis-fatuus. Passages from "Midsummer Night's Dream" are quoted to prove it. For instance:

"Or else you are that shrewd and knavish sprite
Called Robin Goodfellow: are you not he
That
Mislead night wanderers laughing at their harm?"

And Puck's answer:

"I am that merry wanderer of the night."

There seems, then, to be a close connection between the use of *bug* as colloquially applied to a light-house, and Puck as the Ignis-fatuus or "fiend-drake." The one link lacking, which some one else may be able to supply, is the earliest time at which this application of the term was made.

D. A. K.

BRICK CHURCH, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "F. M." is wrong in thinking the term "bug" light is applied solely to those which are intermittent; in fact, unless I am wrong, all "bug" lights are fixed. The phrase is used to designate a small harbor light, often placed on a beacon, which in comparison with a regular light-house gives no more light than a fire-bug—an Orientalism for firefly.—Very respectfully,

L.

WASHINGTON, D. C., October 25, 1884.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have always supposed that the "bug light" derived its name from its being movable—creeping from one point to another of the shore. There are two bug lights at the entrance to Nantucket Harbor, a few rods apart. They stand in

a certain relation to the channel, and when the channel changes they are moved to correspond.

W. F. ALLEN.

MADISON, WIS., October 25, 1884.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The etymology of the word "bug," applied to lighthouses such as those in the Boston and Portland harbors, is, I think, incorrectly stated both in your footnote to the original inquiry and by "F. M." in your last issue.

Being a former resident of Boston, the "Bug Lighthouse" is familiar to me. It is a low hexagonal (or octagonal) building, painted brown, surmounted by the lantern and mounted on six (or eight) iron piles, or stilts, the whole structure resembling an enormous bug or beetle, which resemblance is rendered more striking by the light. I should suppose that the meaning of the word thus applied would be apparent to any one seeing "the bug." Not being acquainted with the Portland "bug" I cannot say whether it may be thus defined and explained.

AN EX-BOSTONIAN.

NEW BRUNSWICK, N. J., October 27, 1884.

Notes.

A NEW edition of 'Edgar Poe and His Critics,' by Sarah Helen Whitman, will be issued about December 1, with an introduction by W. F. Channing, by Tibbitts & Preston, Providence.

The first impression of the first volume of Mr. Parkman's new work, 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' consisting of fifteen hundred copies, was disposed of upon the day of publication, and the publishers, Little, Brown & Co., are now printing a new edition. The second volume, completing the work, will be ready November 15.

The volume containing the Papers and Speeches given at the Ninth Church Congress, recently held at Detroit, will be issued at an early day by Thomas Whittaker.

We were misled as to the translation of 'Delbrück' announced by Gian, Heath & Co. in our last issue. It is not by Edward Channing, but by Miss Eva Channing, granddaughter of the great divine. She is a graduate of Boston University, and was a student in philology at one or more German universities.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly publish, by arrangement with the Vienna publisher, a translation, prepared by Dr. Barney Sachs, with the authorization of the author, of Doctor Meynert's 'Treatise on Psychiatric.' The first part of the work, devoted to the anatomy and physiology of the brain, the publishers hope to have ready by the beginning of the new year. The work will be fully illustrated.

Mr. James Macfarlane announces through *Science* that he has begun to revise his 'American Geologic Railway Guide,' and would be thankful for notes of corrections and additions from those who have used the book. His address is Towanda, Pa.

M. Elisée Reclus, who is now engaged, at his home on the shore of Lake Geneva, on the tenth volume of his exhaustive description of the Earth, intends, as soon as he has finished Africa and the Islands of the East, to take up North America. Before doing so, however, he will visit this country to gather the necessary material.

Any text-book designed to promote the study of the Italian language and literature in this country deserves a welcome. Part II. of 'The Italian Principia,' being a 'First Italian Reading Book,' by Professor Ricci, of the City of London College (Harper & Brothers), has also intrinsic qualities which recommend it to beginners. The

extracts are mainly in prose, and equally divided between ancient and modern writers. They are classified under fables, anecdotes, novels, history, letters, etc., are with hardly an exception entertaining, and are made intelligible by copious notes and a special vocabulary. The memoirs of Massimo d'Azeglio, Benvenuto Cellini, and Silvio Pellico are laid under contribution; a description of a tempest by Manzoni is followed by Leonardo da Vinci's receipt for painting one; the parable of the three rings is taken from Boccaccio, and from Galileo a discussion of the habitation of the planets. Manzoni yields also his Napoleonic ode, 'Il Cinque Maggio,' Leopardi his canzone, 'All' Italia,' Petrarch a sonnet, 'In qual parte del ciel,' etc. From Botta's History of the American Revolution is selected the passage on Franklin's Embassy to the Court of France. A capital letter of Joseph Baretto's heaps praises upon England, despite its insularity: "However, if we except their immeasurable partiality for their own country, and their rabid hatred of the French, and their unreasonable contempt for all the nations of the earth, the English are not such intolerably bad fellows."

The English publishers of M. Max O'Rell's new book, 'John Bull's Womankind,' have had recourse to a very curious and ingenious procedure to guard themselves against a threatened imposition. Soon after the book was announced with the above title, Field & Tuer learned privately that the title was to be stolen for some insignificant pamphlet or other, and then a large sum of money demanded of them for the use of it. To circumvent the would-be thief, therefore, Mr. Andrew W. Tuer instantly wrote a tiny brochure of eight pages on the English law of copyright in general, and this intended evasion of it in particular, and issued it under the title of 'John Bull's Womankind' at a farthing—the price, it will be remembered, at which R. H. Home issued his *Orion*—thus securing the title for subsequent use. Registration of title, according to an eminent authority whose opinion Mr. Tuer obtained and (he adds) paid for, is not sufficient for this purpose; an honest and usual edition of a book must be published and ready for sale, for the entry of copyright to be valid. The brochure at once advanced in price to sixpence, and as only a thousand copies were issued it will probably become a literary rarity. The motto on the title-page of Mr. Tuer's booklet is the line from "Othello," "May his pernicious soul rot half a grain a day!"

Mr. Jessop's illustrations last year to Thomas Ingoldsby's "Pious Jackdaw" seemed too poor almost for mention. But they appear to have found encouragement, for now we have "St. Aloys" served up in the same wretched fashion (E. & J. B. Young & Co.). What insanity is it that makes so many designers nowadays fancy that their decorative purpose will be subserved by putting the letter-press in lettering of their own sweet fancy? Lettering is an art in itself.

The latest pamphlet contribution to spelling-reform is a treatise on that subject by Dr. E. Studer (St. Louis). The discussion leads up to a new set of phonetic characters, which are put to a practical test in transliterating passages in English, German, French, Spanish, Italian, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew. This international application is in the right direction. All other attempts we regard as compromises, leading to temporary confusion and ultimate disappointment.

General J. D. Cox, formerly Secretary of the Interior, has an article in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for October on "Reforming our English," in sympathy with the new movement in that direction. He recommends the associated philologists to make lists of words "of which the old spelling is shorter and simpler than those in common use,

as well as of those in which an analogous reform of pronunciation is feasible"; and foresees the time when school dictionaries will distinguish English words from those of foreign birth, by form of type, to teach "that these are the better words to use."

A new and enlarged edition of Miss C. M. Hewins's 'Books for the Young' has been issued by the *Publishers' Weekly*. It is an excellent idea to bring this useful manual down to date from year to year.

Mrs. Lamb opens her *Magazine of American History* for November with an article on "Unsuccessful Presidential Candidates"; and, among numerous portraits, she gives as a frontispiece that of one who was "three times an unsuccessful candidate for the Presidency." The candidate in question was Henry Clay, but the legend will probably serve for a substituted portrait (the paper is unfinished) in the December number. We remark among the Unpublished Documents a letter of Governor Hutchinson's, transmitted by Franklin and Adams in 1778 to the Massachusetts authorities.

The *Magazine of Art* has for its frontispiece in the November issue a wood-engraving after Mr. F. A. Bridgman's painting, "The Bath at Home (Cairo)," now on exhibition in this city at Knoedler's. Noticeable also are the "process" illustrations of the East Museum of Ancient Art at Cambridge, England.

L'Art for September 1, 15 (J. W. Bouton) contains two interesting full-page etchings, of Amsterdam and of Marseilles, more specimens of the wood engraving of Christopher Jegher, of Antwerp, and various illustrations after Holbein, with a sketch of his life. The Puits de Moïse calvary pedestal preserved at Dijon is also fully described, with the aid of drawings which show the entire design of this venerable monument. In the accompanying *Courier* for July 11, it is stated that the annual purchases of the American buyers at the Salon have been, in 1877, \$701,000; 1878, \$630,000; 1879, \$1,051,000; 1880, \$1,392,000; 1881, 1,608,000; 1882, \$1,937,000; 1883, \$1,754,000; "and that, independently of the paintings bought directly of our artists by rich individuals." These figures are almost incredible, but if true, they show the hopelessness of protection to the American artist, for, with some fluctuations, the tendency is steadily upward.

M. Dieulafoy traces in the *Revue Critique* the successive appearances of the legendary Isdubar in ancient sculpture as an Assyrian genius, a Phœnician god, a Grecian Hercules, a Grecian Theseus, and an Achemenid king; his antagonist changing at the same time from a man-headed bull into a Nemean lion or a minotaur. He asserts that for three thousand years the hero of these fights is the same figure, of undoubted affiliation. It is only another instance of evolution, showing how little there is of originality in human work; the thing that is, being the thing that has been and the thing that is to be.

The tenth number of the second series of the Johns Hopkins Historical Studies is 'Town and County Government in the English Colonies of North America,' by Dr. Edward Channing, Instructor in Harvard College. The paper, we are told, won the Toppan Prize, awarded "for the best essay on one of three subjects in Political Science," and was read at the first meeting of the American Historical Association at Saratoga in September. The most interesting part of the paper is in the introductory portion, where the identity of "town" and "parish" in English law is shown, and the American town institutions are derived directly from the parish institutions of England. This is a point which has been generally thought probable, but is here, we believe, proved for the first time. The most important single point in this derivation is that

of the *selectmen*, whom he traces to the committee of assistance which existed in every parish, consisting "of such only as had before been churchwardens and constables." According to Mr. Toulmin Smith, this was developed into the *select vestry*. "If this last is true—and there is no reason, so far as I know, to doubt it—the origin of the New England selectmen and of the Virginia vestry is perfectly clear" (p. 19). This general introduction is followed by a survey of the town and county system in the several colonies, with an interesting table at the end, in which, in three parallel columns, the details of town administration—powers, obligations, officers, etc.—in England, Massachusetts, and Virginia, are placed side by side.

Among the multitude of papers on the civil war, prepared for officers' reunions, that on the engagement at Beverly Ford, June 9, 1863, by Capt. Daniel Oakey, of the Second Massachusetts Infantry, deserves mention for its graphic quality (Boston: Geo. H. Ellis). This not unimportant encounter gave the Confederates some idea of the improvement which Hooker had effected in the Federal cavalry. The attachment of the Massachusetts regiment for the Third Wisconsin led to a revision of the order by which the latter had originally been left out of the mixed expedition.

We have also received, from Mr. J. Willard Brown, West Medford, Mass., "historian" of the United States Veteran Signal Corps Association, a pamphlet copy of the Constitution of this body, which was organized in 1867, and holds annual reunions. A chapter on the creation and services of the corps during the war; a report of the reunion last August; and a roster of the corps, are added. The historical portion is incomplete, and will be extended in the annual issues hereafter, and Mr. Brown asks the aid of any one who can contribute to its thoroughness and picturesqueness. By 1890 he hopes thus to have told the entire story, and have it ready for publication independently.

Among Mr. Astor's recent gifts to the Astor Library are the manuscript collections made by Lord Chancellor Hardwicke and his sons, comprising original correspondence with foreign courts during the reigns of George I. and George II., and several interesting series of transcripts from state papers and correspondence of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the whole in 140 volumes, folio and quarto. There is a volume containing contemporary copies of letters from John and Robert Bowes to Sir Francis Walsingham, 1582-90, and another containing contemporary copies of nine papers and letters of the Earl of Salisbury, 1609-10. The original correspondence embraces, among other things, two volumes of letters between the Earl of Stair and Mr. Craggs, Secretary of War after 1717, one containing letters of Mr. Whitworth from Berlin, 1719-20, and another containing letters and papers of Lord Whitworth and Lord Polwarth, Ambassador for England to the Congress at Cambray, 1722-23; six volumes of letters on the Court of Vienna and the affairs of Europe between M. de Saphorin and Sir Luke Schaub, 1717-1731; and eighteen volumes of correspondence of Sir Luke Schaub, Secretary of the King of England at Vienna, and afterward Resident at Paris from 1715 to 1732.

The *Old Style Calendar* for 1885, published by George Falkner & Sons, Manchester, England, bears in this country the imprint of Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. It is "old style" not in the calendar proper, but in the borrowed ornamental borders, typography, and selected matter. The idea is well and takingly carried out.

The Mutual Library of Philadelphia chose last week a Board of Managers, consisting almost entirely of women, for the selection of books and the general conduct of the library. They sub-

divided themselves into five sub-committees for the purpose first named.

In *Science* for October 24 we read of Professor Pumpelly's success in making a composite photograph (*à la* Francis Galton) of the members of the National Academy of Sciences in May last. "Three composites had been made from the full-face views—one in which all were represented, and two in which the physicists and naturalists had been separately combined. The latter two showed marked differences, the physicists having a much more oval face and greater temporal breadth." We understand that *Science* will have these typical portraits engraved for a subsequent issue.

While England's struggles in the valley of the Nile and on the shores of the Red Sea for the sake of her dominion in India, form one of the absorbing topics of daily discussion, while France is noisily pushing ahead in her course of colonial aggrandizement both in Africa and Asia, and Germany energetically enters the lists among the colonizers of the Dark Continent, one of the greatest colonial Powers in the East, Holland, is almost entirely lost sight of. How uninterruptedly and prosperously active this thrifty maritime State continues to be in its Eastern insular world is exhibited in a pleasing and popular way by M. Jooris, a Belgian diplomatist, in his historico-statistical 'Aperçu politique et économique sur les Colonies Néerlandaises aux Indes Orientales' (Brussels, 1884). The little book is inspired by most friendly sentiments toward the State from which the author's native country violently seceded half a century ago, and is one of the daily multiplying indications of the fact that the "Belgians and Dutch have abdicated their dissensions," as M. Jooris expresses it, "and live side by side, as good neighbors, more happily than in the days when, as inimical brothers, they lived under the same roof." In fact, the too bright view which this sketch takes of the Dutch colonizing work in the Indian Archipelago impairs its value not a little.

The 'Étude pratique sur les Marées fluviales, et notamment sur le mascaret,' of M. Comoy, inspector-general of "ponts et chaussées" (New York: F. W. Christern), is a volume of nearly four hundred pages, accompanied by an atlas of ten plates. The opening chapter treats in a general way of the more common forms of wave motion, their causes, modes of propagation, and velocities. This is followed by a description of ocean tides, and a discussion of the complex character of the motion of the water in tidal rivers, the whole being introductory to a study of the physical conditions on which depend the formation and extent of the ebb or bore. The fluvial tide is shown to be in reality a compound wave, resulting from the union of a wave of translation and a wave of oscillation. It is to this compound character of the wave that the bore primarily owes its origin, though it is liable to be modified by secondary causes. The closing chapters include an examination of the effects produced on tidal phenomena by the various devices adopted for the improvement of navigation, and an account of some of the peculiarities of the tidal rivers of France. The author never loses sight of the practical bearings of his subject, and makes only a sparing use of mathematical formulæ.

—The *Atlantic* for November has a curious variation of the ordinary symposium article in the shape of a paper by Prof. N. S. Shaler, on "The Negro Problem," with annotations by Colonel Higginson, General Armstrong, and General Chamberlain, and a concluding rejoinder to these by the author. The discussion by Professor Shaler in the text is both comprehensive and searching, and the points successively made must appeal most convincingly to the scientific mind;

but the critics who use the footnotes as their vehicle of thought show rather the traces of the humanitarian habit of mind, and the real conflict seems to be between the two methods of viewing human affairs and their future. The one principle that underlies Professor Shaler's analysis and determines his prognostications is heredity. The difference between the whites and blacks is to his mind so much one of inherited capacity for certain associated modes of thought and emotion, that he makes civilization itself almost a thing only to be transmitted in the blood. Of course the physical basis that has been slowly laid through centuries of gradual growth from savagery, and has been modified with every advance of thought and feeling in individual men, is the best security of society against degradation, and practically represents the alliance of natural law with human aspiration and endeavor. But the question is not of the origination but of the transference of a civilization, and to imply even, in the examination of such a subject, that this physical basis of life cannot be built up rapidly in lower races by the tutelage of the higher, is as yet gratuitous. The speed of brain modification in animals under man's intelligent training, though the case is on so much lower a level, is indicative of the possibilities in the matter; and if it be granted that the negroes could never have developed a civilization had they been left alone, it cannot be doubted that they can adopt one provided the change necessitated in their physical environment is not so great as to destroy the vitality of the race, as seems to have been the case with some, at least, Indian and South Sea tribes. The assumption, however, that the negro could never have evolved an African society worthy to be called civilized, is wholly unnecessary, since it is so far easier to adopt than to create. The race is to be judged, so far as its capacities are concerned (merely from a physical standpoint), by the best examples of its blood, and there is already enough evidence to show that the brain of the negro is capable of perceiving the ends and being actuated by the motives of Aryan society. Great is science, and the doctrine of heredity is just now its cardinal faith; but the doctrine of education (and how potent a factor that has been in the evolution of society is plainly acknowledged) is the first article of the humanitarian creed. The negroes are to be civilized by the latter; and though Professor Shaler only presses the doubt of success suggested by the former, there is little occasion for discouragement at so early a stage. The principal contribution he makes to the practical matter is to say that he would establish technical schools for the negroes, as their chief need; in other words, he would endeavor to give first a more diversified industrial civilization to themselves rather than a literary education to their leaders, mainly with the idea that it would tend to loosen them from the soil, and thus prevent their becoming serfs of the South. The humanitarian would assent to the plan on the ground that the most education possible should be given; but it would certainly be unwise to disturb the facilities for literary education, or to lessen the effort to multiply them.

—*Harper's*, with an abundance of its common interesting matter, has a skilful and finished story by Mrs. Spofford, a sketchy notice of Sydney Smith by Lang, and another of the historical sketches which Francis Parkman has lately been publishing in advance of his new volume. In this the Acadian tragedy, which has truly passed from the realm of history into that of romance, is dealt with, and of the plants of the poet's garden not a flower is left. That pleasant picture we all have of the meadow, the orchard, the fields, the church with its village priest, the

love-making, and the embarkation, is very much confused and blurred by what is to be read here. The priest is shown to have been a fanatic conspirator, who devoted more time to firing the heart of the savage Indian than serving at the altar of our Christian Arcadia; and the people themselves to have had a stubbornness, an insincerity, and a disposition to fight at the first favorable opportunity altogether repellent to one's notions of pastoral simplicity. The one thing that remains fixed is the sadness of the end—the burning and depopulation of a lovely country just won from the wilderness, and the scattering of the people. The brutal orders are declared to have been carried out with as much consideration as the case allowed, pains being taken to keep families and friends together. Nevertheless, while the commonplace cruelty of war has so many examples, most people, when they desire to know the true history of Acadia, will be content to read Longfellow and let Mr. Parkman be forgotten for the time; the history of events is not always that of humanity.

—The *Century* is noticeable for the beginning of a new story by Mr. Howells, whose inexhaustible charm and grace still make one forgive the triviality of his realism, though it is with a pang that one meets again Bartley Hubbard.

"The times have been
That when the brains were out the man would die,
And there an end."

The first few woodcuts after Vedder's designs for Omar Khayyám are of great interest, and foretell what the spirit of the great work is to be; but criticism of them would be premature. The new enterprise of the *Century*, in giving a series of articles on the war of the Rebellion written by prominent actors in it, starts brilliantly with General Beauregard's account of the battle of Manassas. The General's view of it has been known, of course, from his official report, but it gains vividness from the freer style of a popular narrative. The landscape views, engraved after photographs, are a valuable assistance in comprehending the character of the field, though they cannot suggest the depth of the hollows, which would hardly be suspected by one not familiar with the topography. With the authentic portraits, however, and the maps, they make a fulness of illustration which gives a peculiar interest to the article. It is, of course, the Confederate side which is thus presented; but the footnotes by the editor indicate, without debating them, the controverted points, and the Northern public will profit by a careful reading of what the distinguished Southern officer has to say. General Beauregard goes somewhat beyond the history of the battle to criticize the military administration of Jefferson Davis, and to give his own view of the controversies which led to his being practically "shelved" by Mr. Davis's administration. The whole is spicy reading, and opens views of the internal bickerings within the Confederacy which may have had much influence upon results.

—*Lippincott's* opens with the first of two articles of travel in the region of the French Broad, which, although it is one of the few picturesque localities of the mountains of the South well known by name, is hardly more than a name to the public. The journey was made in the depth of winter, and was exceptionally rough and dangerous, and in the first portion, at least, much more attention is given to the people met than to the scenery. The novelist who is in search of particularly unfortunate characters, and a scene where the greatest rigor and degradation of poverty can easily be introduced as faithful realism, might make a similar trip with advantage to his note-book; but the slightest treatment that

these topics receive in this sketch will be enough to inform the reader, without sickening all his sensibilities with an imaginary life of months among such people, who are, for the most part, of the poor-white and negro-convict class. The discussion of John Bright's temperance views is worth noting. The stories are fewer than is usual, but one of them, "Jack Miner's Wound," although its phrasing shows some lack of the last finish, is both entertaining and excellent in itself. Realistic as it is, the story and the interest are not in its picture of a crude Western town, minute and exact in detail as this is; but the human element is never obscured or subordinated by the setting of external fact, and this is a rare quality in our writers. The repulsiveness of much of our imaginative work nowadays, the exposure of the ugly in American life which is sometimes felt as unjustly humiliating to us as a people, is largely due to the mistake of artistic aim, and the defect of insight and sympathy, which presents life from the outside view of the observer, and usually of an observer so far removed from the condition of the persons he describes that he fails to see the less obvious compensation in their lot. Too often our secondary writers seem to confine their realism to the soiled clothes their characters wear, both physically and spiritually. The author of this story is in the true line of art, as well as a skilled realist.

—In a fresh group of school physiologies we find 'Practical Work in the School-room' (A. Lovell & Co.), a transcript of object lessons on the human body. This appears to be the actual text of a series of physiological lessons, with what may be called the alcoholic attachment, given in the primary department of one of the New York city schools. The explanations are so minute, and cover such elementary words and ideas, that either the children so taught are very young or are very ignorant. In either case, it appears to us that their time might be better employed in developing the mind sufficiently to retain and reason upon these facts before thus presenting them. It is a piteous illustration of the out-of-school life of these children, however, to find it assumed all through the book that they are perfectly familiar with the intoxicating power of alcoholic drinks in others, and with the wretchedness they induce. The physiology is ingeniously taught, and is fairly good for its purpose, although the not unusual exaggeration is visible in the discussion of alcohol. The moral evils of alcohol cannot be exaggerated, but it is common to fail to discriminate between moral and physical effects. 'The Man Wonderful in the House Beautiful,' by Drs. Chilion B. and Mary A. Allen (Fowler & Wells Co.), is an elaborate allegory upon physiology and hygiene, including alcohol and the narcotics. The method is not to our taste, although probably it will have admirers; and here too the teaching is marred by extravagance. Dr. Jerome Walker's 'Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene' (A. Lovell & Co.) appears an almost faultless treatise for colleges, schools, and general readers. Careful study has not revealed a serious blemish; its tone is good, its style is pleasant, and its statements are unimpeachable. We cordially commend it as a trustworthy book of reference to all seeking information about the body and how to preserve its integrity.

—Classical scholarship has met with a severe loss by the death of Prof. Lewis R. Packard, of Yale College, who died last Sunday in New Haven at the age of forty-eight. Professor Packard was born in Philadelphia August 22, 1836. He graduated at Yale College in 1856, where he afterward received the degrees of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy. After leaving college he studied two years at home and one year in Germany;

and in 1859 he was made Tutor in Greek at Yale. He remained there as tutor until he was chosen Hillhouse Professor of the Greek Language and Literature in 1863. In this position he was the colleague of Professor Hadley until the death of the latter in 1872, since which time he has been the Senior Professor of Greek, but on the same foundation as before. He was President of the American Philological Association in 1880-1881, and was always an active member of this body, contributing largely and wisely to its publications. In 1883 he went to Athens as the second annual director of the American School of Classical Studies. He had been prepared for this position by a winter spent in Greece about ten years before, when he became acquainted with modern Greek and with the topography of Athens and its neighborhood. He was also singularly fitted for the directorship of the new school by his thorough and accurate scholarship, his enthusiasm for classical learning and all that concerns the life of the Greeks, and his deep interest in the school at Athens as a means of widening, deepening, and enlivening the scholarship of this country. But the insidious disease which had gradually undermined his constitution through many years of patient work—years during which he struggled heroically against a force to which most men would have succumbed—proved at last too much for his strength; and the hopes of his friends and his physicians that a winter in the sunny climate of Athens would benefit his health, were quickly proved to be vain. The journey to Athens taxed his powers too severely; and, after many tedious delays and disappointments, with alternating hope and discouragement, he arrived at the home of the American School at Athens, in October, 1883, completely prostrated in strength, and he hardly left the house during the whole winter. It is, indeed, melancholy to think of an enthusiastic lover of Greece, who had come full of zeal for his own studies and for directing the work of his pupils, compelled to remain a prisoner in his house nearly eight months—in full sight of Mt. Hymettus, the columns of the Olympieum, the Saronic Gulf encircling the beautiful island of Ægina, with the Argolic Hills beyond, and almost at the foot of the Acropolis—unable to visit any of these classic scenes or even to superintend the work of his students under his own roof. We cannot wonder that each month brought fresh discouragement and depression even to his brave spirit.

—Professor Packard was a scholar of great and varied attainments. His characteristic modesty and his infirm health restrained him from frequent appearance before the public, and he devoted his best energies to his work in the classroom. During the last years of weakness and discouragement he remained, as ever, a model of a faithful and conscientious teacher. So far as we are aware, he never wrote a book; his only published volume being his careful and scholarly translation of Bonitz's lecture on the "Origin of the Homeric Poems," which appeared in 1880. In connection with Professor J. W. White, of Harvard College, and his colleague, Professor Seymour, of Yale, he was editor of a new College Series of Greek Authors, based upon recent German editions. Of the results of this editorial work one volume, the 'Antigone,' edited by Professor D'Ooge, is just published. Advance sheets of an edition of the first books of the 'Odyssey,' edited by Professor Packard himself, were recently printed, and it is to be hoped that at least some of this work may yet see the light. He was a frequent contributor to literary and learned periodicals, especially to the *New Englander* and the *American Journal of Philology*, be-

sides writing many papers for the Transactions of the American Philological Association, and being always a willing and welcome contributor to the *Nation*. By his early death he leaves a sad gap in the ranks of American scholars, and a noble example to all. For the second time within twelve years Yale College is called to mourn the loss of an accomplished classical scholar taken away in the fulness of his powers. In 1872 Professor Hadley, by common consent the foremost Greek scholar of our country, was called from his life of active usefulness at the age of fifty-one. He, too, was a noble example of the power of an active mind and a resolute will over the weaknesses of the flesh: ἀσθενεῖ μὲν χρεώτι βαίνων, ἀλλὰ μορῆδιον ἔνν. Now his former colleague, after a similar struggle of mind and will against bodily weakness, follows him at a still earlier age. Of both these men the university is, and well may be, proud, and both have left their mark indelibly on the scholarship of the country.

—Another loss which the *Nation* has incurred during the week, and which may be called irreparable, is that of Dr. Friedrich Kapp, whose death in Berlin was announced by cable on Monday. Doctor Kapp was among the earliest contributors to this paper, and its staunchest friends; and since his return to Germany he has, up to the present time, been its regular correspondent from the Prussian capital. We are constrained to defer till our next issue our tribute to this remarkable and most estimable man.

—Professor Henry E. Shepherd, in a recent letter to the Raleigh (N. C.) *Chronicle* on educational progress since 1861 in North Carolina, asserts that before that period there was scarcely, with the illustrious exception of the University of Virginia, an institution in the South which approached even remotely the standard of genuine excellence in any sphere of literature or science. This is particularly valuable testimony bearing upon the much debated subject of antebellum Southern culture, being the utterance of a North Carolinian and a prominent educator, whose life has been spent as a pupil and as a teacher in Southern schools. The whole letter is a frank, healthful criticism of defects in Southern educational work, which not only is encouraging as an evidence that the morbid fear of giving offence to others is disappearing from Southern life, but, owing to its source and temper, is likely to accomplish a deal of good. Professor Shepherd tells of the new spirit which is animating the University of North Carolina. The conspicuous defect in its organization, as in that of almost every Southern college, is the annexing the teaching of English literature, or history, or both, to some more favored department. What Professor Shepherd has to say of the Bingham School is true of a number of Southern academies, especially of those in Virginia which are preparatory to the University, and should make one cautious about accepting the statement of Professor Charles Forster Smith in the October *Atlantic*, that "there has been no great advance, if any, in college work in the South since the war; and in preparation for college there has been a positive decline in most of the States."

AN HEREDITARY LEGISLATOR.

Memoirs of an ex-Minister. An Autobiography by the Right Hon. the Earl of Malmesbury, G.C.B. 2 vols. London: Longmans. 1884.

THE hereditary legislator is not a popular personage in Great Britain at the present moment, and the esteem and confidence with which he is regarded are not likely to be enhanced by the publication of Lord Malmesbury's autobiography. The life therein depicted is common to the

whole order of hereditary legislators, and it is difficult to conceive of any training less fitted to qualify those subjected to it for the right exercise of great political power. Amusement is its great end and aim. Its chief and almost exclusive business is to spin round and round in an interminable series of balls, dinners, concerts, and visits to country houses. The preservation and shooting of game is, perhaps, the function to which the hereditary legislator attaches the highest importance. Side by side with important political occurrences, Lord Malmesbury never fails to record the number of stags, pheasants, partridges, or other game which he puts to death as he passes from one aristocratic preserve to another; and upon one occasion, when he was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, he solemnly records that having gone to the seat of the Earl of Derby, on this great business of shooting game, he found so many "boxes" of papers awaiting him that he could not shoot for two whole days. All through this autobiography, indeed, the serious business of life and what most people regard as its amusements are placed upon a par. There is apparently nothing which can shake the devotion and punctuality with which the hereditary legislator fulfils all the engagements of a life of fashion. "Men may come and men may go, but these go on forever." Sir Robert Peel, we are told, "died this morning" (July 3, 1850); and then, immediately afterwards, as though it were a matter of equal moment to humanity at large, that Lord and Lady Malmesbury went the same evening to the French play to see Rachel, and found her countenance "diabolical and unfeminine."

The politics of the hereditary legislator, as described by Lord Malmesbury, are exactly like the politics which were talked at the table of Sir Leicester Deadlock. During a good part of the political life of Lord Malmesbury, the arrangement of "Boodle and his retinue, and Buffy and his retinue" lacked somewhat of its customary compactness. The conversion of Sir Robert Peel to the principles of Free Trade had resulted in the severing from the Tory party of a small knot of politicians, known as Peelites; and the story of the long, patient, and unsuccessful endeavor of both Boodle and Buffy to incorporate these detached fragments with their respective parties occupies many pages of this autobiography. While, however, as a contribution to political history, these 'Memoirs of an ex-Minister' can be accounted as of very little value, as a record of fashionable chit-chat they are amusing enough. Lord Malmesbury, as twice Foreign Secretary in Conservative Governments, and as an intimate friend of the father of the present Earl of Derby, has much to tell us that is interesting respecting that statesman, and his friend and colleague, Mr. Disraeli, as he then was. Of Mr. Gladstone he has less to tell, but still it is interesting to know that at one time in his life the present Prime Minister of Great Britain was deeply enamored of negro melodies, singing them repeatedly, without the omission of a single verse, and exhibiting a marked and special preference for "Camptown Races" (not "Camp Down," as the text has it). Lord Malmesbury was an intimate friend of Louis Napoleon when the latter was an exile in England, and it does credit to his reading of character that when English politicians, of all ways of thinking, were prognosticating that he would use his Imperial position to "revenge Waterloo," Lord Malmesbury maintained that the cultivation of a strict friendship with England would constitute a leading feature in his foreign policy. The notices of Louis Napoleon are, perhaps, the most interesting passages in these Memoirs. Lord Malmesbury owed his first introduction to the future Emperor of the French to another well-known

character, Mme. Guiccioli. Regarding her, he writes:

"One night I was at a ball given by the Austrian Ambassador, and was much struck by a lady quite unlike the Italian women who were there, as she had a profusion of auburn hair, which she wore in wavy and massive curls. Her face was handsome, with a brilliant complexion and blue eyes, and full of animation, showing splendid teeth when she laughed, which she was doing heartily at the time I remarked her. When she rose from her chair I saw she was of small stature, although with perfect shoulders and a bust made for a much taller woman."

Byron had then been dead about five years, and Mme. Guiccioli had recovered from her grief at his loss. She was excessively proud of the conquest she had made, and liked to talk about him, especially to Englishmen. In reference to "Don Juan" she told Lord Malmesbury that Byron

"wrote all the last cantos on play-bills (some of which I saw myself), or on any odd piece of paper at hand, and with repeated glasses of gin-punch by his side. He then used to rush out of his room to read to her what he had written, making many alterations and laughing immoderately. She was very proud and fond of him, but described him as having a very capricious temper, and with nothing of the passion which pervades his poetry, and which he was in the habit of ridiculing—in fact, with a cold temperament. With all his abuse of England he insisted upon keeping up old customs in small things, such as having hot cross buns on Good Friday and roast goose on Michaelmas Day. This last fancy led to a grotesque result. After buying a goose and fearing it might be too lean, he fed it every day for a month previously, so that the poet and the bird became so mutually attached that when September 29 arrived he could not kill it but bought another, and had the pet goose swung in a cage under his carriage when he travelled, so that after four years he was moving about with four geese.

"It was surprising to see the number of letters written to him by women offering themselves to him on any terms. Mme. Guiccioli had a large box full of these epistles which he never answered. They were mostly from English ladies, such was the folly and enthusiasm which his verses inspired at the time."

Louis Napoleon was, at this time, just twenty-one, and no one, according to Lord Malmesbury, would have predicted a remarkable future for him. He was a harum-scarum youth, greatly devoted to athletic sports, fencing, pistol-shooting, and riding at full gallop down the streets, to the great peril of the public.

"He used to have several old officers of his uncle, the Emperor, about him, men who seemed to me ready for any adventure. I recollect one, an old cavalry colonel of dragoons, who had seen the whole Peninsular war, relating the following anecdote. One day he was reconnoitring with three or four troopers, when they came suddenly upon a young English officer mounted on a superb thoroughbred horse, and similarly occupied. Summoned by the Colonel to surrender, he quietly cantered away, laughing in the Frenchman's face. The dragoon pursued at full gallop on his heavy steed, and when the Englishman had allowed him to get quite close, he kissed his hand, and leaving him far behind, shouted, pointing to his (the Colonel's) horse, 'Cheval normand, monsieur!' Again the Frenchman pursued, threatening to shoot his enemy if he did not surrender, and pointed his pistol at him, but the weapon missed fire. With a roar of laughter, the young officer again shouted, 'Fabrique de Versailles, monsieur!' and, giving the thoroughbred his head, was seen no more. It was most amusing to hear the Colonel tell this story, and describe his rage, adding, however, that he had always felt glad that he had not shot *ce brave farceur*."

This story recalls another in reference to the funeral of the Duke of Wellington, also to be found in these memoirs:

"November 16th [1852].—Twenty-seven foreign officers are arrived as deputations from all European courts. Walewski was coquetting about attending the funeral, and asked Brinnow whether he thought that, as a Frenchman, he ought to do so; to which Brinnow replied: 'Mon cher, si nous allions ressusciter ce pauvre duc, je comprends que vous pourriez vous dispenser d'assister à cette cérémonie; mais, puisque nous sommes

invités pour l'enterrer, il me semble que vous pouvez vous en faire votre deuil.'"

Here is another extract, not unamusing in its way, as showing the kind of incidents which among the Boodles and the Buffys are supposed to "produce a great sensation all over the world":

"March 4th [1865].—All London is talking of the way in which the Corps Diplomatique has been invited to the Queen's reception. It was, as far as I could understand, in these terms: 'That the Queen would graciously receive them, male and female, at a court to be held at Buckingham Palace.' All those concerned are trying to shift the responsibility upon one another. The diplomatists have sent their cards of invitation to their respective courts, and, therefore, it has produced a great sensation all over the world, as the term *mâle et femelle* is never used in French except in speaking of animals."

Diplomatists, male and female, figure conspicuously in these pages, not a little of whose interest is due to their fantastic proceedings. Especially remarkable among them are the French Ambassador, Persigny, and his wife, a granddaughter of Marshal Ney. Lord Malmesbury, it is to be noted, is far above the use of asterisks or the sacrifice of a good story because it might prove painful or disagreeable to people still living. He discloses the pages of his diary as freely to the gaze of the public as he would have done to the most intimate of his friends; and the domestic jars and bickerings of the French Ambassador and his wife—who appear to have selected by preference the dinner-tables of the aristocracy as the theatre of their encounters—are related with great gusto. For example:

"July 16th [1857].—Gave a dinner to the Persignys, Jerseys, Lady Glengall and her daughter, Lord and Lady Raglan, Comte de Jaucourt, Barrington, and Norman Macdonald. Mme. de Persigny was late, as usual, and M. de Persigny came without her in a hack-cab, which is the way he generally goes out to dinner, as he is almost always obliged to leave the carriage for his wife. He was much put out, and begged us not to wait, so we went to dinner, and the only place left for her was near the door, between Norman Macdonald and Lady Raglan. Poor M. de Persigny looked miserable, could hardly answer, and kept continually looking toward the door. Mme. de Persigny arrived in the middle of the first course in a great flurry, her eyes evidently showing signs of tears. They exchanged a furious look of defiance, she eating her bread very fast, as if to keep down her rage. At last Lord Loughborough made her laugh by his usual jokes, and by the time we went up stairs she had recovered her good-humor, though not so poor M. de Persigny: I could get nothing out of him. When the party broke up, Comte de Jaucourt handed Mme. de Persigny to her carriage, and returned to us to say, 'Vous serez bien aises d'apprendre que l'Ambassadeur et Mme. de Persigny se sont embrassés sur l'escalier.'"

The foregoing is a fair sample of the contents of these volumes. They are the lightest reading conceivable, and from the first page to the last the student of them will find nothing in the way of opinion or reflection to disturb the even tenor of his way. The ex-Minister would seem to have passed through life absolutely untroubled by "the malady of thought." But to that class of readers—and what readers are there who ought not to be included in it!—who like to have powerful, distinguished, and aristocratic personages served up before them in dressing-gowns and slippers, it may be recommended as amply repaying the trouble of perusal.

THE CENSUS OF WEALTH.—I.

Tenth Census of the United States. Vol. VII. Valuation, Taxation, and Public Indebtedness. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1884.

THE Census Act of 1879 is in every way a great improvement upon the Act of 1850. In some respects its superiority is immeasurable. We use

the word immeasurable advisedly, for there is no way of comparing the value of that which is worth something and of that which is worse than useless. The machinery for taking the Census provided by the earlier act was so ill adapted to the purpose as to make it certain that upon many important subjects the statistics which the reports contain are positively misleading. The volume before us shows that it would have been far better if the provision requiring a return to be made of the true value of all property had been left out of the old law. As it is, there is scarcely a doubt that the estimates of national wealth in 1850, 1860, and 1870, published in the Census reports for those years, are altogether untrustworthy. They cannot be depended upon as even approximately true statements, either of the total wealth of the country, or of the relative proportions in which the whole was distributed among the respective States and sections. The Census authorities have never pretended that they were entitled to much respect. General Walker characterized the estimates of true wealth given in the Census of 1870—in this respect incomparably superior to its predecessors—as impressions rather than opinions. These statistics (by courtesy so called) were officially published, as under the law they, of course, had to be; the natural and inevitable result being to give currency to grossly exaggerated ideas as to the material progress made by the country in the last thirty years. Well-informed persons make these inaccurate figures the premise from which they deduce conclusions of moment upon subjects of the greatest practical importance. Within the last few months the Census statement that the wealth of the country has trebled since 1860, has been countless times quoted as a proof of the wisdom of the tariff system now in operation. No matter how clearly it may be demonstrated that no reliance can be placed upon the Census in this respect, people will still continue to believe in it and to refer to it. Half a century hence there will doubtless be weighty arguments based upon its assumed accuracy.

Prior to 1880 the assessed valuation was made the basis of all estimates as to what the true wealth of the country was. In 1850 and in 1860 the marshals or their deputies employed in census-taking estimated as well as they could the proportion of its true value at which property in their district was assessed when it was assessed at all, and they guessed (for they had no way of doing anything more) the value of the property which from one cause or another had escaped assessment altogether. The assessors' totals were then increased in accordance with these conclusions, and returned as the true value of all property. A man specially qualified for such an investigation, and with time and appliances to make it thorough, could doubtless form a tolerably correct opinion as to the ratio borne by the assessed valuation to the real worth of all the property actually assessed in a given district. There is no reason to suppose, however, that the marshals of the United States have a training which would make them, as a class, peculiarly competent to form a correct judgment upon so complex a problem; and most certainly, with all their other duties, it was not possible for them to give much time to its solution. In 1870 the Superintendent of the Census was so thoroughly persuaded that it was not possible for the marshals or their ordinary deputies to do this work well, that wherever it was practicable he induced them to commit it to specialists who were commissioned as deputies for the express purpose. As will be seen presently, in many cases this innovation produced excellent results. But the data did not exist for an accurate determination of the real value of all the large classes of property which were not assessed at all. In 1870,

wherever scientific men were employed to estimate the real wealth, a nearer approach to the truth was attained than was ever reached before; but as each one was confined to a limited section of the country, he could not avail himself with much profit of those statistics of exports and imports, and of the annual production of the agricultural and manufacturing industries, which are absolutely necessary to be taken into account in determining the amount of personal property in the country at any given time. The most ragged tramp in the land has some property: the clothes almost falling off his back would bring something at the paper-mill; his clay pipe and his supply of tobacco have their value. The poorest tenement-house in New York is furnished after a fashion. The meanest negro hovel in the South has some household utensils. The toys of the child are property as well as the race-horses of its father. It is very certain that small things of these and kindred sorts, amounting in the aggregate for the country to many millions of dollars, were never thought of by an ordinary census-taker. The special deputies of 1870 must in most cases have realized that they had no way of arriving at any idea at all as to the real worth of the furniture, household supplies, clothing, or even the stock in trade of the merchants, and the products in the hands of farmers, miners, and manufacturers; and they probably as a rule contented themselves with an estimate which they were sure was within bounds. There is, then, every probability that the estimates of true value made upon the basis of the assessed valuation were in almost every instance less than the facts would have warranted had the facts been attainable.

Although a great deal of property was twice counted under the methods employed in 1850, 1860, and 1870, undervaluation was inevitable. In 1880 the way in which the estimate of true value was arrived at was altogether different. The statistics of assessment were used for some purposes, but they were not the starting point of the calculation. All the possible varieties of actual wealth in the country were classified, and the real worth of each class was separately determined. The values of farms, \$10,197,000,000; of livestock and of farming tools and machinery, \$2,406,000,000; of railroads and their equipment, \$5,536,000,000; of telegraphs, shipping, and canals, \$419,000,000; of mines, oil wells, and quarries, with product in hands of producers and dealers, \$781,000,000, were, it is asserted, obtained from actual returns published in other parts of the Census reports. The estimated values of residence and business real estate and water power, \$9,881,000,000; of household furniture, clothing, and household supplies of food and fuel, etc., \$5,000,000,000; of the proportion of the products of agriculture and manufacturing in the hands of producers and dealers, \$6,160,000,000; of churches, schools, and all other real estate exempt from taxation, \$2,000,000,000; of specie, \$612,000,000; and of miscellaneous items, including the tools of mechanics, \$650,000,000, were the results of long, careful, and intricate calculations, as to the correctness of which it would be impossible to speak without being in possession of all the data upon which they were based. It may be safely affirmed, however, that if the value of clothing and household effects and of stock in hands of producers and dealers was in 1880 actually \$11,160,000,000 (equal to 76 per cent. of the estimated worth of all the property in the country in 1860, slaves excluded), that latter estimate must have been much below the truth. An inspection of the detailed returns upon which some of the items going to make up the total wealth in 1880 are based proves that none of them are too small, while some of them are demonstrably too large. Thus, the value of the railroads and their equip-

ment is put down at \$5,536,000,000. Of this sum no less than \$653,000,000 consists either of specie already counted or of Government, corporate, or individual indebtedness to the railroad companies, which, it is needless to say, adds nothing to the wealth of the country. The present value of the roads and their equipment is assumed to be equal to their original cost—an assumption with which the facts would, in a great number of cases, hardly be at one. The value of telegraphs and canals appears to have been estimated upon a like liberal basis.

If it be granted that the Census estimates of the wealth of the country at different periods are trustworthy, the increase has been truly marvellous. In 1850 the value of 3,204,313 slaves and in 1860 that of 3,953,760 formed a part of the valuation. A comparison of the per capita wealth of the free and the slave States, as returned in the light of the known facts of their relative material condition, shows that the slaves in 1850 must have been appraised at least as high as \$300 a head, and in 1860 at not less than \$400. If their value be deducted from the estimated wealth of the country at those periods, and if the valuation of 1870 be reduced to a gold basis, we can construct the following table:

Census year	Est. True Valuation.	Population.	For Capita Wealth.	Percentage of Increase in Est. Wealth.	Percentage of Increase in Population.	Percentage of Inc. in Per Capita Wealth.
1850	\$6,174,486,328	23,191,876				
1860	14,578,112,068	31,443,321		136	35	74
1870	23,967,221,474	38,558,371		64	22	34
1880	43,642,000,000	50,155,783		81	30	39

The country is vastly richer than it was thirty years ago, but few will be prepared to believe that the per capita wealth is three times as great as it was in 1850. In spite of all the devastation and destruction of the war and the check to production occasioned by the withdrawal of some three millions of men from industrial pursuits, in spite of a lengthy period of commercial depression, during the continuance of which large numbers of workers spent months of enforced idleness, the wealth of the nation is far greater than it was in 1860; but it is not easy to suppose that the average man is nearly twice as rich as he was then. The returns of assessed valuation at the different Census periods do not correspond with a progress as rapid as this.

We attribute no importance to the fact that the assessed valuation of personal property is now less than it was in 1860. There is, however, no reason to suppose that any considerably greater portion of the real property of the country now escapes from assessment than was the case twenty years ago. The estimated true value of all the property in the country has since 1860 increased 109 per cent. The assessed valuation of real estate was in 1880 only 86 per cent. greater than it was two decades before. The increase in the aggregate amount and value of personal property has been a good deal more rapid, doubtless, than that of real estate, but not so much so as these figures would seem to indicate. In 1880 the value of farms, residence and business real estate, and of real estate exempt from taxation, was \$22,078,000,000. As the assessed value of real property was \$13,056,766,925, it must have been assessed at not more than 59 per cent. of its actual worth. If in 1860 real estate was not assessed at any higher rate, as it probably was not, its true value must have been \$11,818,654,320. If the Census totals are correct, the value of all other sorts of property except slaves could not have exceeded \$2,759,457,748. In 1880 the value of those same classes of property was \$21,564,000,000—an increase in twenty years of 681 per cent.

In 1860 the assessed valuation of all property was 74 per cent. of its estimated true value, in 1870 it was 47 per cent., and in 1880 only 38 per cent. A smaller proportion of the whole wealth of the country is now taxed than was formerly the case; but it will not be doubted that there are many States whose present social and industrial condition is no more favorable to the escape of property from taxation than was in 1860 the case in some of the States at least. According to the Census, however, in 1860 in only three States was property assessed at below 60 per cent. of its real value, and in 1870 in nineteen States it was assessed at above 60 per cent.; in 1880 in no State did the assessment reach 61 per cent. of the actual worth of the property. Still another proof that the estimated true value in 1860 was too small, is to be found in the fact that the aggregate wealth of the country in that year, as it was returned to the census-takers in response to their question as to how much each individual was worth, exceeded the Census estimate of true value by no less than \$2,929,540,221. In spite of the exaggerations growing out of vanity and of over-sanguine dispositions, the likelihood that most people would fail to take into account the value of a good deal of the personal property which they own and have in daily use is so great, that it may be safely assumed that any valuation based upon each individual's estimate of the worth of his own belongings will be under and not over the truth.

It seems clear, then, that the Census cannot be depended upon to show the rate at which the wealth of the country has increased. In 1850 the statistics of wealth were taken for the first time. Collecting them was new work for everybody, and it was very poorly done. In 1860 more experience and knowledge was brought to the task, and a much larger proportion of the property in the country was appraised. In 1870 General Walker's modifications of the old methods of census-taking brought still more property into the account. In 1880 the system upon which the estimates were made tended rather to over than to undervaluation. There has, therefore, been in operation a series of causes which, independent of the actual and undoubted advance in wealth, were certain to produce a very large apparent increase in valuation.

If the Census cannot be accepted as trustworthy evidence of the total wealth of the country at different periods, neither is it safe to base upon it any comparison of the relative riches of different States at the same time. Until the last Census, whether the valuation for any district was very nearly correct or very far out of the way, depended largely upon the individual temperament of the marshal. Some of the United States marshals, doubtless, made earnest efforts to come as near the truth as they could, others contented themselves with the roughest and most general estimates. Thus, in 1860, the Marshal of the District of Columbia seems to have concluded that property was assessed up to its true value, and consequently for the District the assessed and the estimated true valuation are the same. In 1870 the Marshal for North Carolina assumed that property was assessed at one-half its value, and the Marshal for Delaware reported that the assessment amounted to two-thirds of the actual worth. Some of the conclusions to which we should be led if we trusted to the Census to show the relative if not the absolute progress of the several States, would be a little surprising. For instance, we should find that between 1870 and 1880, in all the great stretch of country from the eastern coast to the Mississippi River, and from the southern borders of North Carolina and Tennessee to the Canadian frontier, the most prosperous of all the States was Maine, for according to the Census it was Maine that made the

greatest relative increase in wealth per capita. Reducing the values of 1870 to the gold standard, the increase of wealth per head of population for the country as a whole was at the rate of 39 per cent.; in Maine it was at the rate of 74 per cent., in Rhode Island 39 per cent., in Massachusetts 34 per cent., in New York 26 per cent., and in Connecticut 18 per cent. It is not easy to reconcile these statements with the large number of paupers in Maine and with the former strength of the Greenback party. The explanation is, however, not far to seek. It has already been mentioned that in 1870, in a number of States, General Walker so managed it that the estimates of wealth were made by gentlemen who, in fitness for the task, were far above the most capable of the ordinary deputy marshals. It is not possible to divide the States into two classes, according as these special agents were employed or not, so as to derive any clear light from comparing the results with each other; the difference of conditions in different parts of the country, and the unequal qualifications of the experts themselves, stand in the way of such a comparison. On a more limited scale, however, it is perfectly possible to test the workings of the two systems. The New England States, with New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, make up a section of country which has strongly marked characteristics of its own. In each of these States a number of men quite capable of making an estimate of its wealth could be found. In New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont the estimates of 1870 were made by experts. The Census of 1880 shows that the per capita wealth of those States increased only 34 per cent., while in Maine, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, where in 1870 the estimates were made by the ordinary deputy marshals, there was, in 1880, an apparent increase of 59 per cent. On the other hand, between 1860 and 1870 in the first group of States, the apparent increase was 91 per cent., and in the second only 44 per cent. It would be hard to find clearer proof that when the estimates are made after the old method they are almost certain to result in undervaluations.

James Madison. By Sydney Howard Gay. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THE Life of Madison has been in good time added to the series of "American Statesmen"; no list of American statesmen, however short, could omit his name. The execution of the work deserves the highest praise. It is very readable, in a bright and vigorous style (the unconventionality of which is sometimes perhaps carried a trifle too far), and is marked by a unity and consecutiveness of plan which may be due to the even career of the quiet statesman. The view presented of Mr. Madison is, we think, that which is generally accepted—as a man of very high qualities of statesmanship, and entire personal integrity, but of a certain infirmity of purpose at great junctures which was not inconsistent with great strength of will on ordinary occasions. The principal occasion on which this weakness was exhibited is a matter of notoriety: when he suffered his party leaders to bully him into the declaration of war against England. For, if we regard this, as Mr. Gay does, as a surrender of his judgment for the purpose of securing a renomination, even in this point of view it was a piece of moral weakness.

The other great occasion on which he displayed this quality was in joining himself to the Antifederalists at the beginning of Washington's administration. We do not remember to have seen this fact brought out with so much fulness and clearness as by Mr. Gay. It has always been a matter of remark that Madison, after acting con-

sistently until now with the friends of a national government, and after doing more than any other person to impress the national character upon the instrument of government, in less than ten years had become so far out of sympathy with his old associates as to be the author of the Virginia resolutions, aimed directly at their policy. The change has generally been assumed to have been a gradual one; Mr. Gay gives cogent reasons for supposing that it was a sudden one. The nature of the change is well expressed by Hildreth: "A Federalist from natural largeness of views, he became a Jeffersonian Republican because that became the predominating policy of Virginia." This is also Mr. Gay's view, who, however, lays a great deal of stress also upon the personal influence of Jefferson, which seems to have been exerted just at this time. From the moment of the assembling of the First Congress, Madison appears as the steady and determined opponent of Hamilton, as the leader of the Opposition in the House of Representatives. That this was an unfortunate change is clear enough, from the point of view which Mr. Gay occupies, of positive sympathy with the Federalist party. "Had he been born in a free State," he says (p. 172), "it seems more than probable that he would never have been President; but it is quite possible that his place in the history of his country would have been higher." This seems very likely. Not only is it true that "the better part of his life was before he became a party leader"; it is also true that his moral and intellectual powers, which were very great, were not those which especially qualified him for the Presidential office. We sometimes lament that our great statesmen are not made Presidents. But it is in the Senate, the Department of State, and foreign ministries, that the statesman of the intellectual type finds his best field of action. It was very fortunate for us as a nation that when the War of the Rebellion broke out, Seward was Secretary of State and Lincoln was President.

The most significant event connected with this change of attitude on the part of Madison is his share in drafting the Virginia Resolutions of 1798. Of this matter we have an interesting discussion in chapter xv, in which, after quoting Mr. Madison's positive expression of opinion, in the last years of his life, that our Union is a nation, not a confederacy, and his assertion "that there is nothing inconsistent in the resolutions of 1798 with these opinions upon the sovereignty of the United States," Mr. Gay adds: "There is no possibility, then, of misunderstanding his opinions during the last six years of his life; and we should have no right to doubt his repeated and earnest assurances that these were his opinions when he wrote the resolutions of 1798. It can only be said that the construction he gave them thirty years afterward is opposed to the universal understanding of them at the time they were written" (p. 248). May it not be, however, that the popular opinion of the time confused the two sets of resolutions, nearly contemporaneous in their appearance, and the work of two personal and political friends—both, moreover, directed against what we now all admit to have been an abuse of power by the majority? Jefferson's Kentucky Resolutions clearly contain the doctrine of nullification. Madison's Virginia Resolutions, in their form as adopted, describe the Constitution as "the compact to which the States are parties," and since Webster's time we have seen that danger lurks in this expression. But in the early days of the republic, when it was a matter of personal recollection that the instrument was actually drawn up by delegates of the several States, and adopted by the States individually, it was a very natural expression. It was in another phrase of the resolutions that the party issues of the time found completest ex-

pression: "that the States . . . have the right, and are in duty bound to interpose." This does not necessarily mean nullification. It describes the action which the State of Virginia was taking at that moment, in protesting as a State against the Alien and Sedition Laws, and which no one would at the present day think of criticising in a State. But under the newly-formed Government, whose strength was untested, and in which the centrifugal forces appeared excessive, it is not to be wondered at that the supporters of the national authority, the Federalists, were sensitive and suspicious at any State action which touched national issues. The Federalists contended that the States had no power to act as States in matters of national interest, and it appears to have been Madison's object, in the phrase in question, to assert this right rather than the right of nullification.

The question of admitting Cabinet Ministers to the floor of Congress, urged so strongly at the present day, receives some light from the action of Congress in refusing "to permit the Secretary [Hamilton] to appear upon the floor of the House to explain some proposed measure" (p. 100). This action was no doubt largely partisan, but it appears to have been grounded principally in the theory of the independence of the departments, which is embodied in the Constitution. They "thought that they were quite capable of discharging the duties belonging to their branch of the Government, without instructions from a head of department whom many of them looked upon as only an official subordinate of Congress." This was a natural consideration at that time; at the present day the question must be decided on the ground of expediency rather than of abstract theory.

We find on page 82 what is obviously a slip of the pen—where the Spanish Minister, Guadalupe, is said to have consented to concede the navigation of the Mississippi for twenty-five years. The concession—as appears in the next paragraph, and the discussion following—was by the United States, of an exclusive right to the navigation of the river by Spain for this term of years, after which, if "the navigation of the Mississippi should be worth contending for, the question could be reopened."

Géographie Comparée de la Province Romaine d'Afrique. Vol. I. Géographie physique, Géographie historique, Chorographie. Par Charles Tissot. Paris: Hachette. 1884.

M. CHARLES TISSOT, who died in Paris on July 2 of the present year, was not only a diplomatist of great ability, but an archaeologist of exceptional learning, having devoted nearly thirty years to the study of comparative geography and antiquities in northern Africa. Like M. Waddington, his successor at the French Embassy in London, and M. de Vogüé, his predecessor at the Embassy in Constantinople, he bestowed equal attention and care on the present and the past, on politics and on archaeology. But, unlike his two more privileged colleagues, and unfortunately for himself and for the public, the necessities of his career, so soon interrupted by illness and death, obliged him to dwell for long years in countries, such as Turkey and Morocco, where the want of a library impeded the progress and the publication of his scientific researches. In 1883, when he retired from public life, his health was already so much impaired that he scarcely had the strength to continue what he had begun in 1852 as a promising young man—his great work on the comparative geography of the Roman Province of Africa. The first volume was still going to press when he died, intrusting his secretary with the care of publishing it, together with the second and last one, the manuscript of which

he had happily brought to a conclusion. It is certainly a consolation to think that the result of so much labor and persevering research will not disappear with its author, insuring to his name the well-deserved esteem of all the learned. Any one who will take up the first volume, which has just appeared, will deeply feel the loss inflicted upon science by the early death of so accomplished a scholar.

The 'Géographie Comparée de la Province Romaine d'Afrique' has been printed at the Imprimerie Nationale, by order of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The book is intended to form the first part of a series of monographs devoted to the provinces of northern Africa, part of which, namely Algeria and Tunis, are actually under French rule. It is somewhat surprising that while continental Greece and the more accessible regions of Egypt and Asia Minor were long ago explored and described by distinguished travellers, so little has been done as yet for the Regency of Tunis, which lies nearly opposite to Marseilles, and is so rich in ruins of Punic and Roman times. The reason of this is to be sought in the political condition of that country, where fanaticism and misgovernment have changed into deserts the once thickly peopled and wealthy province of the Proconsularis. Indeed, up to the French occupation in 1881—the last Punic War, as it has been styled—the interior of the Regency was almost a *terra incognita* to geographers. The only map of the country, made in 1857 by the French War Department, was chiefly compiled from the statements of the natives, and large portions of the territory are left in blank. Travellers like Shaw, Temple, Barth, Bruce, and more recently Pellissier and Guérin, had surveyed a part of the Regency for archaeological purposes and collected much valuable information; but the only general work on the subject, Mannert's compilation in his 'Géographie der Griechen und Römer,' is nothing but a voluminous mass of misstatements and blunders, which have been repeated for the last sixty years by all the second-hand writers on geography and by all commentators on Sallust's Jugurthine War. The most interesting spot on the African coast, the site of Carthage, although visited and described by many travellers, is yet so imperfectly known that no good plan of the ancient Punic metropolis has ever been published. Nathan Davis's 'Topography of Carthage' (1862) is, perhaps, one of the worst books ever issued on an archaeological subject; but notwithstanding the deal of nonsense it contains, it has been perpetually referred to as an authority, for the simple reason that very few people were capable of understanding and demonstrating its defects. If you take the last English book relating to the history of Carthage, Dr. Smith's 'Carthage and the Carthaginians' (1877), and compare the chapters it contains on topography with the corresponding part in Tissot's first volume, it will certainly seem as if a century had elapsed between the publication of the two works, and, in fact, the 'Géographie Comparée' may be said to open a new era in the treatment of a hitherto nearly unknown subject, just as was the case in 1842 with the 'Topography of Rome' published by Becker.

Tissot resided in Tunis from 1852 to 1858; during that period he undertook three long journeys to the little explored region of the south—the country about Lake Triton—to the neighborhood of Kairuan and to the mountainous districts of the Krumirs, on the frontier of Algeria. Being an experienced draftsman, capable of making a plan and sketching a map, and, moreover, very well acquainted with the Arabic language, he collected a number of documents of every description—drawings, paintings, inscriptions, testimony of natives—which enabled him to identify with the actual sites or ruins the greater part of

the ancient cities recorded by the Greek and Roman authors. Thus he could for the first time explain and comment with admirable precision the campaigns of Agathocles, Marius, and Cæsar in Africa, following closely the statements of the historians, and correcting them, when necessary, by his personal knowledge of the country. In 1879, being Minister at Athens, he profited by some months' leisure to explore the valley of the Bagradas, and discovered there some of the most important inscriptions which Africa has yet yielded to Roman epigraphy. At that time the manuscript of his work was nearly complete, and he would certainly have published it if the occupation of the Regency by the French troops (1881), bringing about a sequel of new discoveries and greatly improving the facility of research, had not compelled him to modify many details and add new information to that which he had previously collected. Up to the last months of his life he cherished the hope of returning to Tunis and beginning excavations at Carthage, where he knew how many topographical problems can only be settled by the spade; if his hopes have not been fulfilled, it may at least be asserted that no serious work will ever be done at or about Carthage if not under the direct inspiration of the chapters in which he has thrown so much new light on the desiderata of Carthaginian topography. Indeed, it seems to us impossible in the future to dwell on any subject relating to the Punic, Numidian, or civil wars in northern Africa, without adopting as a starting-point, and more frequently as the adequate expression of truth, the opinions of so competent a judge as Tissot. Classical scholars are only too apt to forget that the Greek and Roman writers cannot be perfectly understood without the help of geography and archaeology; to every serious reader of Appian, Sallust, and Cæsar, Tissot's first volume must be recommended as an indispensable guide.

The contents of the first volume, which it would be impossible to analyze here without exceeding the limits of a review, are briefly the following: Three chapters are devoted to the comparative survey of the mountains, rivers, lakes, coasts, and islands of the Regency. The author's method consists in exposing, first, the actual state of the land; second, the testimonies of the ancients; third, the identifications which may or may not be accepted between the ancient features of the land and the modern Arab or Italian names. Then comes a most interesting chapter on the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdoms; on the agriculture of Roman Africa, once so flourishing and now so degraded. The second part of the work is devoted to ethnography, viz.: to the study of the different races—Libyans, Berbers, Iberians, Phœnicians—which lived together under Carthaginian, and later under Roman rule. The customs and the religion of the Libyan tribes are described with great detail, not only by comparing and discussing the statements of Herodotus and others, but with the help of the little known remains of Libyan art, such as rock-hewn reliefs and the frieze of a Libyan mausoleum now preserved in the Museum of Constantinople. Many customs recorded by Herodotus may yet be traced with perfect certitude among the present inhabitants of the Regency belonging to the Libyan and not to the Arabic stem. The last chapters refer to the topography of Carthage and the neighboring Punic towns, to the Atlantis of Plato (the existence of which, at a prehistoric period, is looked upon as certain by the author), and finally to the long-disputed problem of the ancient trireme or Roman war-ship. The volume is completed by a copious index, four large maps, including a plan of Carthage, and a number of woodcuts representing coins, mosaics, and miscellaneous antiquities.

The second volume is expected to be ready at the end of 1885. It will be entirely devoted to the study of the Roman routes in Africa and to descriptions of the most conspicuous ruins. If, as we are inclined to believe, it is by no means inferior to the first one, the whole work will rank in the future, by the side of Curtius's 'Peloponnesos' and Leake's 'Northern Greece,' among the noblest achievements of comparative geography in modern times.

Politics. An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Constitutional Law. By William W. Crane and Bernard Moses, Ph. D., Professor of History and Political Economy in the University of California. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884.

If we consider what California was forty years ago and what it is likely to be one hundred years hence, a work from that quarter upon the great questions of society and government possesses rather peculiar interest. Books of this kind may be divided into two classes, those which treat of politics from the abstract and theoretical point of view, and those which sum up the concrete lessons of history. This one must be ranked under the former class, and is upon the whole fairly satisfactory. We cordially agree with the view which regards the state or sovereignty as an aggregate of individual wills, whether forming the whole or a part of the citizens, inasmuch as we have never been able to conceive of the state as an entity apart from the individuals composing it. It is also a very practical view which denies that "governments may be said to be necessary evils, their necessity arising out of the selfishness and stupidity of mankind." This quotation expresses a tendency, quite too prevalent in this country, to maintain that as government is an evil the less we have of it the better; the fact being, as we regard it, that what we need is more and not less government. Consistent with this is the position of our authors, that political government is as much a necessity of man's being and growth as the vital forces of life themselves, and that it is a sign of the supremacy of will and reason over mere instinct and animal desire. A strong point is made of instinct as a factor in political organization, and by showing that the Aryan races have always tended, with more or less modification, to the adoption of (1) a national chief with limited authority, (2) a council of certain selected persons, and (3) an assembly of the people acting directly or through their representatives. This tendency has been most perfectly worked out in Great Britain, and is remarkably illustrated by the general agreement of the institutions adopted by all the separate colonies in this country. Another general tendency which may perhaps be conceded is that towards uniting the various groups, whether of families, villages, or still larger local organizations, into the more comprehensive whole called a nation; but it is as to the working of the powers of government within the nation that we begin to take exception.

There is one word in our Federal Constitution as to which we look for a good deal of controversy in the future, namely, the power of "initiating" legislation. In Great Britain, all important laws are proposed by the Ministry, and accepted or rejected by Parliament; but there is a popular impression, which our authors seem to share, that as the Constitution gives to Congress the right to "initiate" legislation, therefore proposals of laws can only emanate from members and be discussed and settled by committees of that body. If this is a necessary interpretation, it condemns us to what every session of Congress makes more manifest, namely, practical anarchy. But if to initiate legislation may be held to mean the passing it, while the proposing it can be

placed in the hands of responsible executive officials, it opens a future of quite different promise.

"The political evolution in a nation appears to be always towards the concentration of the law-making power and the control of its physical force or the executive power in one and the same person or department."

There is no doubt of this tendency, and the writer seems to think that the result is inevitable. If this is true, all attempts at popular government must end in failure. We hold, on the other hand, that it is the function of the popular will to keep the two branches in equilibrium; that is, to check the encroachments of each in turn. The defect in our system is that the executive is cut off from appeal to the country, and is too much in the control of the legislature, and that the latter is rapidly absorbing all power; while the peculiar merit of the English is, that the executive and the legislature are in daily contact, and the conflict of public discussion enables the people to judge and pronounce between them. This difference is, however, in no sense a necessity of the Constitution, because, as our authors remark, in another connection: "We may say that this makes of the Constitution but a sheet of rubber, to be stretched to suit every occasion. In a sense it is. It will always be worked in the interest of those having control of the Federal Government." It is this elasticity within a certain rigid framework which forms the highest merit of that instrument, and will enable it to meet the requirements of a people which has grown from small colonial settlements to be a mighty nation.

A Critical Inquiry into the Condition of the Conventual Builders and their Relations to Secular Guilds in the Middle Ages. By George F. Fort, author of 'The Early History and Antiquities of Freemasonry,' etc. J. W. Bouton. 1884.

MR. FORT'S book—it is hardly more than a brochure—contains a great many interesting facts and inferences touching the status of mediæval workmen. Such a contribution as this is especially welcome nowadays, since most of the zeal of archaeologists and students of the history of the arts has reverted to the classical period, or gone forward to the Renaissance, leaving the mediæval field comparatively deserted. The essay is a natural sequel to the author's researches into the history of Freemasonry. It throws light on one of the most interesting phases of the history of the Middle Ages—the long nurture of the arts among the monastic orders, and the sudden secularization of them in the thirteenth century which has deceived many writers and readers of history with its appearance of a phenomenal rapidity of development. Mr. Fort's pages are full of the results of wide and curious reading and footnotes of references to mediæval writers, through which it would be laborious to follow him. If he is a Freemason, he is at least too much an historian to be carried away by that desire to detect modern Masonry in everything which seems to be an ignis-fatuus of Masonic writers. We are not quite sure how far he is beyond the common temptation of investigators to stretch an individual indication into a generalization. The conclusions he has reached are not always borne out by the citations with which he fortifies them; nor is he always careful to mark the distinction between original authorities and investigators like himself. In one case we find him putting with great positiveness the statement which he confirms by this passage from Mothes: "The plans [of mediæval churches] were very rarely designed by a single person, but were rather worked out in council by the brotherhood." There are indications that this was mea-

surably true; but what the more cautious Mothes says is: "Man wird beinahe versucht anzunehmen dass, etc," i. e., "One is almost tempted to assume that the plans," etc. In another place Mr. Fort, saying that "after the usual orisons were sung and prayers or adoration, they were set to work under the authority of the Decanus operis," refers to Du Cange for support; but Du Cange only says that the Decanus operis was "operis monasticis prefectus." These examples, however, do not fairly indicate the quality of the book, for which we are grateful; and we can but regret that Mr. Fort succeeded in resisting the temptation, to which he confesses, "to enlarge the limits of the inquiry beyond the slender proportions of an *étude*."

The New Physics. A Manual of Experimental Study for High Schools and for Preparatory Schools for College. By John Trowbridge, Professor of Physics, Harvard College. D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

PROFESSOR TROWBRIDGE'S work is an attempt to place the teaching of physics in our preparatory schools upon a better basis than it has heretofore had. In old times we learned our "natural philosophy" by conning sentences in a book and reciting them to a teacher. The experiments which accompanied the teaching were of no great value, because the student could not readily see the principles which they were designed to illustrate. The greatest improvement which Professor Trowbridge makes upon this old system is, that the principles and experiments are brought together in such a way that the student grasps the fundamental principles of physics step by step as he goes on in his work. Many of the experiments are of the simplest kind, requiring but inexpensive apparatus, and can be performed by the student himself. The name of the author is a sufficient guarantee of their adaptation to the ends they are designed to subserve, and we wish every possible success to what will be in our elementary schools a new but much-needed system of teaching. Unfortunately, the old ideas that principles are to be learned abstractly, and not from observation, as well as the difficulties of putting a new plan into operation, will, we fear, make any improvement very slow.

We regret having to qualify our praise of this book by expressing doubt as to one of its features. There seems to be a lack of precise definitions, and indeed of clear, condensed, and precise statement generally. There is also much desultory remark put into the text, so that the pupil will be continually at a loss to know what he is intended to learn, and what he reads merely as a means of helping his understanding. The first two pages comprise a discussion of the advantages of quantitative over qualitative measurements. The pupil will have to search closely to learn what these terms mean, and may be left with some doubt on the subject. The feature to which we allude is seen as prominently in the opening remarks of the chapter on Motion as anywhere. At the same time, the reform embodied in the book is one so much needed that we hope Professor Trowbridge's system will have a fair trial, before any one decides whether the defect alluded to is a serious one.

Manual of Preaching. Lectures on Homiletics. By Franklin W. Fisk, Professor of Sacred Rhetoric in Chicago Theological Seminary. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1884.

THE multiplication of books upon the art of preaching during the last few years has been remarkable. Whether it indicates an increase of popular interest in the delivery of sermons, it is difficult, perhaps impossible, to decide; but there is little doubt that it implies an increasing con-

sciousness of the importance of a careful preparation for the pulpit if its influence in the future is not to be conspicuously less than it has been in the past. The manual of Professor Fisk has a familiar tone for one who has read the various treatises that have preceded any or all of them. To the best of these it makes no sensible addition. In his second lecture the author enumerates the works on homiletics that he considers of the greatest value, and he places Prof. Austin Phelps's work, 'The Theory of Preaching,' at the head of these. His own will leave it undisturbed in its preëminence. It is, if not a much more formal, a much less interesting book. The work of Professor Fisk will make its principal appeal to the students who have enjoyed the advantage of his lectures during the quarter of a century for which he has been a teacher in the Chicago Theological Seminary.

Nine out of ten of the suggestions usually made in treatises on homiletics are either of no importance, or they are such as would occur to any preacher of ordinary intelligence. Professor Fisk's treatise is not exceptional in this respect. Especially unfruitful are his lectures on the use of texts, upon "the introduction," "the exposition," "the division," and "the development," and these lectures are fifteen of the twenty-three that make his book. There is here and there a hint that may be useful, but for the rest a man with anything to say, and endeavoring to say it in the most direct and simple manner possible, would easily dispense with all of these refinements. There are three lectures on the use and the abuse of texts, and they are the most entertaining of all. Professor Fisk is a great stickler for a text. A sermon without one is hardly a sermon in his eyes. Several amusing examples of the abuse of texts are given, and the average reader will regret that the list was not considerably extended, as it might easily have been. As good as any is that of the Pedobaptist preaching against immersion from the text, "Divers (weights) are an abomination to the Lord."

The lectures on style are calculated to be more useful than the others. What they advise has been approved by the experience of many public speakers. It is above all things to read the authors whose writings are models of simplicity and strength. In conclusion, the delivery of sermons is discussed with a brevity that is almost startling. Reading from a manuscript and speaking memoriter are set down as inferior to extempore preaching, by which is meant preaching in which the speaker relies upon the moment for the words of his discourse. But the dangers appertaining to this method are not disguised.

Life and Labour in the Far, Far West. Being Notes of a Tour in the Western States, British Columbia, Manitoba, and the Northwest Territory. By W. Henry Barneby. With specially prepared Map, showing the Author's Route. New York: Cassell & Co. 1884.

UNDER this somewhat far-fetched title the author has given to the public an account of a journey made by himself and two fellow-travellers during the summer of 1883, in the United States and Dominion of Canada. The volume has been prepared from the carefully preserved letters of the author, written while on his travels, to his wife at home in England. It lays no claim to a high literary quality, but the general reader might have been better pleased if the original epistolary material had been more thoroughly condensed before printing. The earlier chapters relate little else than the ordinary experiences of English travellers, by familiar routes, across the United States and in California, set forth with customary comments, some of which, touching the disagreeable features of such a journey, are

as just as they are familiar. The latter and larger portion of the book gives the writer's experiences and observations in Manitoba and along the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway as far West as Fort Calgary, concerning which less familiar region the author has much to say that is interesting, especially to those who think of seeking homes and fortunes in that new country. The appendix contains an entertaining chapter on the Kootenay Lake District, in the southeastern corner of British Columbia, contributed by Mr. W. A. Baillie-Grohman, author of 'Camps in the Rockies.'

The not infrequent misspelling of proper names in Mr. Barney's book is a blemish that ought to have been avoided even in a work making no higher pretension than his does to literary excellence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbott, E. A. Skeleton Outline of Greek History, Chronologically Arranged. London: Rivingtons.
A Thousand Questions on American History. Syracuse: C. W. Barden.
At the World's Mercy. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Bacon's Essays, and Wisdom of the Ancients. With a Biographical Notice, by A. Spiers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Béguier de Chancourtols, A. E. Programme Raisonné d'un Système de Géographie. Paris: Gauthier-Villars; New York: F. W. Christern.
Berean Beginner's Book for 1885. Phillips & Hunt. 15 cents.
Berean Question Book for 1885. Phillips & Hunt. 15 cents.
Boughton-Abbey. Sketching Rambles in Holland. Harper & Brothers.
Bourke, J. G. The Snake Dance of the Moquis of Arizona. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$5.
Browne, W. H. Maryland: The History of a Palatinate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.

- Bread-Making. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Cameron, Mrs. H. L. A North Country Maid. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Capel, Right Rev. T. J. The Faith of Catholics Confirmed by Scripture and Attested by the Fathers of the First Five Centuries of the Church. In three volumes. Fr. Paquet & Co.
Coffin, Capt. R. F. An Old Sailor's Yarns: Tales of Many Seas. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
D'Ooge, M. L. Sophocles: Antigone. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. \$1.00.
Dorson, A. Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.00.
Drake, F. S. Indian History for Young Folks. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Faithfull, Emily. Three Visits to America. Fowler, Wells & Co.
Field, M. Callirrhoe: Fair Rosamund. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.25.
First Italian Reading Book. Harper & Brothers.
Franklin, B. The Church and the Era. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Fraser, Prof. A. C. Selections from Berkeley. With an Introduction and Notes for the Use of Students in the Universities. 3d Ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Frazar, D. Perseverance Island; or, the Robinson Crusoe of the Nineteenth Century. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.
Frost, A. B. Stuff and Nonsense. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Froude, J. A. Thomas Carlyle. A History of his Life in London. In two volumes. Vol. I. 1834-1881. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Froude, J. A. Thomas Carlyle. A History of his Life in London. 1834-1881. Vol. I. Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Ginn, F. B. Addition Manual. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 20 cents.
Griewald, W. M. Index to Articles Relating to History, Biography, Literature, Society, and Travel, etc. 2d ed. revised. Bangor: Q. P. Index.
Hamilton, Dr. F. H. Conversations Between Drs. Warren and Putnam on the Subject of Medical Ethics. Birmingham & Co. N. Y.
Hopkins, Louisa P. Natural History Plays, Dialogues, and Recitations, for School Exhibitions. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 30 cents.
Hopkin, A. Two Compton Boys. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Hudson, Henry N. Studies in Wordsworth. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Ingoldby, T. The Lay of St. Aloys: A Legend of Blois. With the Old Letters and New Illustrations of Ernest M. Jessop. E. & J. B. Young & Co. \$4.50.
Johnson, Helen Kendrick. Illustrated Poems and Songs for Young People. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.50.

- Johannot, J. Book of Cats and Dogs, and other Friends. D. Appleton & Co. 20 cents.
Kimball, Mrs. S. M. My Aunt Jeanette. Phillips & Hunt. \$1.00.
Laboulaye, E. Fairy Tales. Illustrated. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.50.
Le Conte, J. A Compend of Geology. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
Lowell, A. L. and F. C. The Transfer of Stock in Private Corporations. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lowell, Josephine Shaw. Public Relief and Private Charity. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Matheson, P. E. A Skeleton Outline of Roman History, Chronologically Arranged. London: Rivingtons.
Maudsley, H. Sex in Mind and Education. Syracuse: C. W. Barden.
McCarthy, J. History of the Four Georges. In four volumes. Vol. I. Harper & Brothers.
Mielziner, Dr. M. The Jewish Law of Marriage and Divorce, in Ancient and Modern Times. Cincinnati: The Block Publishing Co.
Mitchell, D. G. My Farm of Edgewood. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25.
Morey, W. C. Outlines of Roman Law: Comprising its Historical Growth and General Principles. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.
Optic, Oliver. Square and Compasses; or, Building the House. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.25.
O'Rell, Max. Les Filles de John Bull. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Parker, E. H. "Life's Race Well Run." With a Sketch of its History. Poughkeepsie: Hiram S. Wiltse.
Parkman, Francis. Montcalm and Wolfe. Vol. I. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Perry, T. S. From Optiz to Lessing. A Study of Pseudo-Classicism in Literature. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Pierson, Mrs. Helen W. History of England in Words of One Syllable. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.00.
Pierson, Mrs. Helen W. History of France in Words of One Syllable. Illustrated. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.00.
Pierson, Mrs. Helen W. History of Germany in Words of One Syllable. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.00.
Pierson, Mrs. Helen W. History of the United States in Words of One Syllable. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.00.
Porter, Admiral. Allan Dare and Robert le Diable. Part 3. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Saunders, F. A travers l'Atlantique. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.
Senior Lesson Book for 1885. Phillips & Hunt. 15 cents.
Shumway, E. S. A Hand-Book of Latin Synonyms. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Silver, P. P. Esoteric Buddhism. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLO- pædia for Housekeepers. \$2.50. HENRY HOLT & C.

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